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ABSTRACT

Intended as a reference book for students and practitioners who are concerned with present and future problems of administering and supervising vocational education at the secondary and collegiate levels, this volume may also serve as a textbook in graduate courses dealing with administration and supervision in business education. Discussed first are the history of business education and the development of administration and supervision; tenets of educational administration; social, economic, and demographic forces affecting business education; business education for target groups; administration in junior high, secondary, and postsecondary schools; administration of leader preparatory programs in business education; research activities essential to program development; and federal responsibility affecting business education. Various administrative and supervisory responsibilities are covered, including staff selection, growth, and evaluation; human skills and group dynamics; the administrator as a leader/facilitator; planning and reporting functions; curriculum development responsibilities; and evaluating administrator effectiveness. Addressed next are the following current practices in business education administration: selection of business education supervisors/administrators; responsibilities of national, state, and local administrators of business education; and responsibilities of administrators at the junior high, secondary, postsecondary and independent business school. (MN)

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Administration and Supervision in Business Education

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Foreword

Educational administration and supervision is a complex science that requires the leadership of men and women of unusual initiative, dedication, and human persuasiveness. Special educational preparation is essential to develop broad programmatic insights, managerial talents, and human relations skills.

This volume is intended as a reference book for students and practitioners who are concerned with present and future problems of administering and supervising business education at the secondary and collegiate levels. While it may serve primarily as a textbook in graduate courses dealing with the administration and supervision of business education, it will also be a valuable reference in courses concerned with business education methods, problems and procedures, or issues in business education.

The book will be of considerable help to persons currently engaged in the administration and/or supervision of business education. Eminently qualified business educators provide insights into the administration and supervision of business education at the secondary, postsecondary, and continuing education levels gained through actual practice and research.

Educational administration and supervision functions best when the organizational structure and operational climate can release the creative potential of each individual. Furthermore, the administrator/supervisor must provide the foresight and motivation needed to maximize individual efficiency and group effectiveness. This book is designed to help potential administrators/supervisors, as well as current practitioners, achieve these goals.

Part I, *Foundations*, is devoted to several factors undergirding educational administration and supervision. The reader is first oriented to significant events in the historical background of business education that have affected the program's development. Subsequent chapters deal with many basic tenets of educational administration and supervision. Part I also reminds the reader of evolving social, economic, and demographic factors likely to affect the nature of business education for several years to come. Many concerns central to all education are treated as they relate specifically to business education—how business education is related to the unique needs of the handicapped, the educationally disaffected, the economically disadvantaged, the unemployed, and the underemployed. The philosophy of career education is reviewed, and suggestions are provided for the implementation of career education at all levels of an educational system.

Later chapters of Part I provide an overview of business education as it currently functions in the middle or junior high schools, secondary schools, independent business schools, two- and four-year colleges. These chapters describe both the status quo and evolutionary changes in content and organization taking place at these various levels.

Part II provides detailed treatment of administrative/supervisory responsibilities of business educators at the local, state, and college levels as related to program development; staff selection, growth, and evaluation; human relations and group dynamics; curriculum development; program planning, reporting, and evaluation. The role of the administrator/supervisor as a leader and facilitator is emphasized, especially his/her responsibility for innovation, instructional improvement, and program accountability.

Current practices, described in Part III, make it possible to view the administration/supervision of business education from several perspectives. A current practitioner from the national, state, and city levels and from an independent business school, secondary school, and two- and four-year colleges helps the aspirant envision the scope of program administration/supervision from each of these vantage points. Practitioners are also provided a yardstick against which to judge the range of their own activities.

This book appears at a time when attention, nationwide, is being focused on the fundamental purposes and effectiveness of the American educational system. There are both professional educators and laymen who believe that our schools have attempted to meet too many societal needs and, as a consequence, have failed to give attention to their central purpose. Other individuals see ever widening societal problems which must be shared by the schools as well as by other institutions. needless to say, the business education administrator/supervisor must recognize the constantly changing needs of business education allied to an evolving world community, neglected human rights, and a more humane and self-fulfilling society.

Hobart H. Conover, Editor

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PART I

Foundations

CHAPTER 1

History of Business Education and the Development of Administration and Supervision

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AUTHORS' NOTE: *Many of the historical dates and facts included in the following article were researched and taken from* A Chronology of Business Education in the United States, *written by S. J. Wanous and published by the National Business Education Association. The Chronology describes more than 125 major events that have had a profound impact on the business education profession and also includes over 75 selected references which are of inestimable value to any researcher studying the history of business*

The term "business education" is relatively new when we look at the long history of preparing individuals for careers in business. The first record of business education in the United States was in Plymouth Colony in 1635 when Schoolmaster James Morton was employed to teach reading, writing, and casting accounts. Casting accounts was a course in practical mathematics and included many of the same topics covered today in similar subjects. Courses in bookkeeping were offered in the private schools of Boston and New York City by about 1700. The teaching methods used were based on actual experience in business; however, the chief means of obtaining a business education was through the apprenticeship system.

In these early years, private schools continued to provide business education offerings, but it was not until 1823 that the first bookkeeping course was offered in a public high school. Four years later, a law was enacted by the Massachusetts legislature requiring the establishment of public high schools in every municipal group of 500 or more families, and bookkeeping was one of the subjects that had to be offered in these schools.

Shorthand instruction came onto the scene in the mid-1800's, and there is evidence that the first public high school to offer a shorthand course was in 1862 in St. Louis. Some experts feel that the acceptance of shorthand and bookkeeping in public schools in 1862 marks the beginning of business education at public expense in the United States. At this point business education had a combination of courses that could result in both vocational preparation and college preparation. With business education opening the door to expanded secondary school programs, a number of other vocational subjects were subsequently admitted. Most educators will agree that the new "comprehensive" high school is the greatest single contribution of the secondary school to American education, and this concept had its roots in business education.

The most significant development in the growth of business education in the United States resulted from the invention of the first practical typewriter in 1867. Even though touch typewriting had not been introduced and many typewriter manufacturers indicated that there was no need for instruction on the machine, the first program for teaching typewriting was offered in a private business school in New York City in 1878. Later that same year, touch typewriting was introduced, and by 1900, this method was almost universally accepted. For many years typewriting has been and continues to be the most popular elective subject in secondary education.

COLLEGIATE BUSINESS EDUCATION

Even though the Morrill Act—or "Land-Grant Act"—authorized aid to collegiate business education, it was not until 1881 that business education moved beyond the secondary school with the establishment of the first successful collegiate school of business, the Wharton School of Finance and Business at the University of Pennsylvania. Seven years later two other universities opened colleges of "commerce," and by 1935, there were more than 180 such schools.

In 1898, Drexel Institute in Philadelphia became the first institution of collegiate status to offer a business teacher education program. Prior to this date, all business teachers had been prepared in private business schools. By 1929, business teacher education programs were offered in 138 degree-granting colleges and universities.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONALISM

The improvement of their profession and sharing ideas about better administration and teaching was of concern to the founders of the Business Educators' Association, formed in 1878. The development of business education has consistently been closely linked with private schools, and this first professional organization of any importance formed by business educators consisted mainly of private school members. As part of its mission, the association held conferences and published monographs on timely issues. In 1892 the Business Educators' Association petitioned for affiliation with the National Education Association, and when the petition was approved, the group became the

Department of Business Education of the National Education Association.

The lack of unanimity appears to be characteristic of the field of business education; mergers and split-offs have taken place throughout its history. In fact, three years after acceptance as a Department of the National Education Association, several of the original members from the private school sector who had applied for this status withdrew and formed the National Commercial Teachers Association. This same group helped organize the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association in 1897. Because of the recognition of the need for standards, several private schools formed the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools in 1912.

Many different groups formed and some dissolved over the years, but most private business schools united in 1962 as the United Business Schools Association. In 1972 this association changed its name to the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools.

Representatives of several colleges and universities met in 1927 to form the National Association of Commercial Teacher-Training Institutions, which later changed its name to the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions. In 1949, this association became a division of the United Business Education Association (now NBEA). As the institutional division of NBEA, its present title, the National Association for Business Teacher Education, was adopted in 1957.

In 1925, the American Vocational Association established a division of business education to give expanded visibility to the vocational aspect of business education, and as late as 1965, the Business and Office Education Division of AVA had less than 600 members. The bylaws of AVA were then changed to require 1,000 members in a division in order to maintain divisional status and have a vice-president. At AVA's annual meeting in 1965, the United Business Schools Association, representing private schools, presented a check to cover over 400 AVA memberships so the divisional status for business and office education could be maintained.

Other groups have been formed through the years to meet the needs of business teachers and administrators. Although the National Council for Business Education was formed in 1933 to unify business education, it was not until that group merged with the NEA Department of Business Education in 1946 to become the United Business Education Association that anything approximating unity occurred. Between 1947 and 1952, three regional associations affiliated with UBEA, and divisional status was extended to the National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions and the U.S. Chapter of the International Society of Business Education. It was at this point that UBEA became the association most widely representative of the field. Later, two other regional associations affiliated with UBEA. Now, under its present name adopted in 1962, the National Business Education Association represents more than 20,000 business teachers and administrators.

Perhaps the major problem facing business education today is the lack of professionalism reflected in the number of those affiliated with professional organizations in the field. Combined membership in the National Business Education Association and the Business and Office Education Division of AVA totals less than 26,000 and includes many overlapping memberships. Although there is no truly reliable figure on the exact number of business educators in the field, it is recognized that those who affiliate with professional organizations comprise less than one-fourth of the total number.

THE BEGINNING OF SUPERVISION IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The date when formal supervision in business education began has not been established, but some private business schools appear to have had an effective program of supervision. Some rather extensive chains of schools were operating during and immediately after the Civil War, and the uniform operation of these schools indicate that close supervision was maintained. This supervision covered the administration operation of the school, hiring practices for teachers, teaching procedures, and standards of work.[1]

Generally speaking, when business education was introduced in the public schools, supervision was provided by the principal of the school or, in some cases, by an officer of the board of education. From all indications, these individuals were not usually familiar enough with the content of business subjects to be able to provide effective leadership for the field.[2]

ADMINISTRATION OF STATE AND LOCAL BUSINESS EDUCATION PROGRAMS

New York was the first state to appoint a supervisor of business education in the United States. I. O. Crissy was named "inspector of commercial education" for New York State in 1898. At this time the state inspector for commercial education was responsible primarily for preparing regents examinations (statewide examinations prepared by the state university and administered through its state department of education) and assisting commercial teachers in preparing for this program. It was not until 1909 when Frederick G. Nichols replaced Crissy that business education received proper recognition at the state level. Nichols had distinguished himself in 1905 as the first city director of business education in Rochester, New York. It was under his leadership that the work of the business education supervisor was expanded to include the improvement of subject matter content through redesigning the commercial courses, making provisions for business teacher education programs, and establishing basic public relations efforts in all areas of the school as well as with business and the general public.

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[1] Tonne, Herbert A. "History and Status of Administration of Business Education." *National Business Education Quarterly* 30:12; May 1962.

[2] *Ibid.*

The growth of business education supervision at both the state and local level was very slow. At the local level, the Des Moines, Iowa, public schools had appointed Clay D. Slinker as "city supervisor of commercial work" in 1912, and by 1924, Idaho and Pennsylvania had established similar offices in their state departments of education. Lyon indicates that by as late as 1924, there were less than 12 business education supervisors at the local level. He quotes Bachrach on the duties of the city supervisor:

> The director should advise with the general superintendent in regard to the installation and supervision of commercial subjects and equipment. If there is no employment bureau maintained in a general employment department, he should establish and supervise such a bureau for graduates of the commercial department. He should advise with the superintendent with regard to the selection of textbooks and syllabi for commercial subjects. If he be wise, he will consult freely with his teachers and principals before making his recommendations. At all times, if he desires to be successful, he should remember that his supervision is horizontal and that the direct supervision of a school is in the hands of the principal. He should be very careful not to issue orders directly to teachers without consulting the principal who is immediately responsible for the success of his school. It is much more satisfactory to leave directions with a principal for the betterment of the commercial department in his school.[3]

Special supervisors for business education at the state level increased to five by 1941.[4] In 1962 there were only 13 full-time business education supervisors with another 12 supplying some supervision of business education on a "part-time" basis. These part-time supervisors were in fact full-time distributive education supervisors.[5] At the local level there were 26 city and county school systems that had one or more persons serving as business education supervisors in 1962, with an additional 33 systems reporting that supervisors were responsible for both business and distributive education.[6]

Although some state and local education agencies had the vision and wisdom to provide leadership at these levels prior to 1963, most had failed to do so. Following the enactment of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, within a span of 24 months most states had established positions of state leadership. Many cities and counties followed suit and appointed the necessary individuals to assume leadership roles in business education within their school systems.

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[3] Lyon, Leverett S. *Education for Business*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. p. 534.

[4] Huffman, Harry. "Responsibilities of the State Department of Education for the Administration and Supervision of Business Education." *National Business Education Quarterly* 31:13; May 1963.

[5] Selden, William. "Evaluating the Effectiveness of Business Education Supervision on the National, State and Local Levels." *National Business Education Quarterly* 30:18; May 1962.

[6] "Directory of City and County Supervisors in Business Education, 1962–63." *National Business Education Quarterly* 31:87–94; May 1963. This directory includes only those school systems with a population of at least 50,000 persons.

Although many of these appointments resulted in a strengthening of the field within a state, in too many instances stress situations began to develop. Terms such as "business education," "business and office education," "office occupations," "vocational," "prevocational," "business and distributive education," etc., became popular. Proponents of each terminology had their own constituency, and this caused confusion both within and outside the field of business education. Although many pleaded for attention to aspects in the field on which there was agreement, far too many emphasized the real or supposed differences.

As state and local supervisors began to play a more active role, they looked for visability on the national scene. The National Business Education Association was recognized as the organization devoted to addressing the special interests of the field of business education, while on the other hand, the American Vocational Association was seen as the primary association devoted to the promotion of the total vocational education field. Through the cooperative efforts of NBEA and AVA, it appears today as if many of the problems initially faced by business education supervisors at the state and local levels have been resolved. Even though there are current controversies within the field, business education has gone through a series of changes that have served to strengthen the entire field, particularly the leadership position of state and local supervisors of business education.

GOVERNMENT INVOLVEMENT IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The U.S. Office of Education was created in 1867. This federal agency, originally housed in the Department of Interior, was later a part of the Federal Security Agency and eventually became a part of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare when that agency was created. The Office of Education is responsible for administering many programs, including the Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education and the Bureau of Higher Education.

The first opportunity for federal aid to business education resulted from passage of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which provided for research efforts involving office occupations and for certain types of business training of persons employed in commercial jobs. Although the assistance was limited, it seemed to be the position of many school administrators that there were already sufficient high school courses in typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping which negated the need for federal financial support for such courses at that level.

The Federal Board for Vocational Education, formed in 1917 under the Smith-Hughes Act, was a separate governmental organization apart from the U.S. Office of Education. Initial support for business education programs came from this Board in a report issued in 1919. The report advocated a plan for general clerical training for those students who could complete high school, providing for specialization in general business and accounting, stenographic and secretarial work, retail selling, and foreign trade and shipping. It also authorized an assistant director of commercial education, and Cheesman A. Harrick was appointed to this position on a temporary, part-time basis. Frederick G. Nichols became the first full-time assistant director of commercial education, serving in that capacity until 1921. Another serving at the federal level was Glen L. Swigget who was appointed as a specialist in commercial education in the U.S. Office of Education in 1917.

In 1924 Earl W. Barnhart was named chief of the Business Education Service in the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and the next year, J. O. Mallott became the specialist in commercial education in the U.S. Office of Education. The USOE job of specialist in commercial education was eliminated in 1933, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education was merged into the U.S. Office of Education. Following a personnel cutback during the early 1930's, the U.S. Office of Education invited Barnhart to again join the staff as the chief of the Commercial Education Service in its newly formed Federal Board Division.

With the passage of the George-Deen Act in 1937, additional controversy arose concerning federal subsidies for both business and distributive education. The George-Deen Act provided funds for teachers, supervisors, and directors of distributive education for the purpose of offering classes on a part-time and evening basis to workers employed in distributive occupations.

Just one year later, B. Frank Kyker replaced Barnhart as chief of the Commercial Education Service, which was renamed the Business Education Service and made responsible for the total field, including distributive education. This only served to magnify the problem, with charges being made on both sides—one group asserting that too much was being done to assist distributive education, the other maintaining that too much was being done to assist business education.

There was great concern on the part of business educators that their area of education be included as one to which federal aid should be given. Hearings were held by both houses of the U.S. Congress, and in 1946, the George-Barden Act was passed, increasing financial support of distributive education and providing no federal aid for business education. In 1952, the Business Education Service in the U.S. Office of Education became the Distributive Education Service and for several years was under the directorship of an acting chief. In 1957 John Beaumont was appointed director of the Distributive Education Branch of the USOE Division of Vocational Education.

Both the United Business Education Association (now NBEA) and the American Vocational Association were concerned about the lack of leadership personnel at the national level in the field of business education, and officials in the U.S. Office of Education were contacted in an effort to see what could be done to remedy this situation. Although the two organizations were not unified in their ideas about the responsibilities that should be included in the job, they were united in the feeling that someone in authority was needed to address this serious problem. James Pearson, then Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, approached the top secondary school officials in the U.S. Office of Education about making such an appointment. When he discovered that the general educators were not willing to do so, Mr. Pearson, within the authority of vocational education legislation, appointed Bruce I. Blackstone as a specialist in office education in 1959.

It became apparent that the U.S. Congress recognized the importance of business education when it specifically included the field in the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This established the vehicle for substantial expansion of the field. In 1971 James H. Wykle was transferred from the Atlanta Regional Office of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to Washington, D.C., to assume the position of specialist in business education within the USOE Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education, replacing Bruce I. Blackstone who was transferred to another division with other responsibilities.

The U.S. Office of Education in the past few years has moved further toward the use of personnel in functional rather than program areas. Program specialists such as those serving business education have been assigned other responsibilities that have consumed a disproportionate amount of time and reduced their effectiveness in program areas. Unless program specialists, as such, are provided more time to serve the profession, it is somewhat doubtful that business education will become the cohesive educational unit it could and should be. Certainly NBEA and AVA will be working toward this end.

CONCLUSION

The primary concern of the field of business education is the development of skills, attitudes, and knowledges people need for "gainful" employment, that is, simply, using their business training to earn a living. But there are other valuable aspects in a good basic business education. Everyone—regardless of age, occupation, or profession; regardless of economic or social status—needs to learn how to perform certain business activities that are a part of everyday living. Knowledge about our economic system, the ability to live within a certain income and make the best use of money earned, and learning good consumer practices are vitally important for every citizen. In addition, there is the "vocationally useful" aspect of business education, invaluable training for individuals enrolled in other vocational education programs who need to supplement their education by taking specifically designed courses to add to their skills, possibly assisting them in reaching managerial levels in their chosen field or being successful in the business owner's role.

To accomplish the task that lies before us in business education, we need dedicated professional leaders in administrative and supervisory positions at all levels: high school, community college, and college or university department heads; county, city, and state supervisors; specialists in the U.S. Office of Education; and leaders within our professional associations. In every phase of administration and supervision, enlightened and dedicated personnel must work to provide resources, consultation, and leadership in a cooperative, supportive manner that will ultimately improve all our instructional programs so that we can meet the needs of our students. The fact that an employing board of education or other institutional body formally grants someone the authority to administer or supervise does not guarantee success. What is needed is the authority granted informally by those under the direction of the administrator or supervisor, bestowed by consensus because of dedicated service, understanding, and cooperation.

Often teachers think administrators and supervisors in our profession make all the decisions, and teachers have to carry them out. Unfortunately, this is true in some instances, but it is by no means a typical pattern. Unless there is a total team effort, our attempts to accomplish something meaningful will be futile. It is important for those involved with administration and supervision to realize that their job is to be of service to others, especially those "on the firing line" in business classrooms everyday. The responsibility of administrators and supervisors is to assist classroom teachers in every way possible to help prepare young people for careers in business. This is true at the national, state, regional, city, and local level and is of the utmost importance if we expect our programs to be effective. We must recognize that business education programs are what classroom teachers make them, but these same classroom teachers need quality teacher education programs and the assistance of good administrators and supervisors in order to do the most effective job.

The field of business education has a proud history and an unequalled professional heritage, as evidenced by the tremendous strides made in the field since its early appearance in the New World. We are facing new challenges today and will have others in the future. The only way to meet these challenges is through dynamic leadership provided by administrative and supervisory personnel at all levels of business education. We must "dare to be great" today so that the future of business education will be bright tomorrow.

CHAPTER 2

Basic Tenets of Educational Administration

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The purpose of this chapter is to expose briefly to the reader, who is presumed not to have a great deal of administrative experience, the major tasks, problems, and concerns of the general school administrator. An understanding of such factors should enable the business teacher, department head, or supervisor to react better in the interplay that takes place among those who administer educational programs and those who deliver them, directly or indirectly, to the students. At the same time, knowledge of the framework of general school administration should be of value to the business educator for whatever administrative tasks he or she might be assigned.

THE TASKS OF THE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR

Regardless of the type of educational unit to be operated, the following tasks must be attended to by the administrator. Obviously, many of them are delegated to specialists, particularly in larger systems. Nevertheless, the person who reports to the governing body of the unit in its behalf is accountable for the results of actions taken.

The school administrator:

1. Adopts a management style
2. Develops an organizational structure
3. Plans and executes an overall strategy for the content and delivery of instruction
4. Plans for and controls the fiscal resources necessary to pay for the educational program
5. Plans for and controls the personnel resources necessary to staff the educational program
6. Plans for and controls the auxiliary services necessary to operate the educational program
7. Develops and executes a system for attending to student services
8. Obtains the buildings necessary to conduct the educational program
9. Maintains liaison with public and private groups and individuals to whom the educational unit is accountable
10. Provides for the evaluation of both the administrative structure and, most crucial, the educational program, through research

11. Participates, in cooperation with the governing body, in overall policy formulation
12. Develops a system of documentation
13. Develops a system of internal communications.

Each of these tasks will be discussed briefly in terms of the knowledge needed or the reactions and contributions that can be made by the business educator.

MANAGEMENT STYLE

It is up to the professional subordinate, the business educator in this case, to determine the management style of the administrator and to develop a reaction style that is in the best interests of the program and the students. Management styles, of course, range from highly autocratic to highly democratic and from "seat-of-the-pants" planning to systems management. It is difficult to generalize as to what the business educator's reaction style should be under any given administrative management style. The point here is that management styles differ greatly from one administrator to another, that systems management is definitely in vogue today, and that the reaction style of yesterday may not work well today or tomorrow. For example, if a new administrator operates according to a management by objectives (MBO) style, then the development of clear-cut goals and objectives by subordinate units will no longer be optional. A study of the management style of the administrator under whom one serves can contribute to the development of a practical strategy for the achievement of business education goals and objectives. The business educator should be familiar with, if not skilled in the use of, such management tools as the systems approach; program evaluation and review technique (PERT); critical path method (CPM); planning, programming, budgeting system (PPBS); and zero-based budgeting.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Formal and informal lines of authority and responsibility shift as the educational organization changes. Some of these changes take place through careful planning; others occur over time without conscious direction. In either case, it is up to the business educator to keep track of what is happening in the formal organization and what informal lines may be opening or closing. Effective interaction with the educational administration is possible only if one knows the formal and informal organizational structure of the system.

CONTENT AND DELIVERY OF INSTRUCTION

The professional business educator, the specialist, has a great deal to offer in contributing to the makeup of the curriculum and to the

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attendant delivery strategies. The professional manager will make decisions regarding content and curriculum whether or not the advice of the specialist is given. Therefore, unique curricular problems and teaching methodologies must be clearly and carefully explained to the administrator by the specialist. Appropriate research, written data, and quantitative evaluation measures have greater impact on the modern manager than traditional clichés in the manager's assessment of the specialist's advice.

FISCAL RESOURCES

A knowledge of the sources of revenue for the overall educational program, budgeting methods, accounting systems, auditing requirements and methods, and the day-to-day control of funds will enable the business educator to operate with greater understanding, if not more money, within the system. It is difficult for the business educator to know when and how to ask for money, when and how to seek outside funds and how to justify funds requested without first understanding the broad financial framework of the educational unit. Careful records must be kept of past and present expenditures as part of the justification process. However, newer administrative techniques call for justification of funds according to future objectives and activities rather than past spending. The business educator should have a natural advantage in studying financial structure and responding appropriately.

PERSONNEL RESOURCES

One of the most difficult and time-consuming jobs of the educational administrator is to hire, promote, transfer, and fire people and to interact with the representatives of unions. In these tasks, the administrator needs a great deal of help and support from the professional business education specialist. This assistance can take the form of interviews with candidates for employment, evaluation of the job performance of subordinates, advice on the resolution of internal personnel difficulties, and documentation of all of the above. Such assistance might also include the active recruitment of candidates for positions in business education.

AUXILIARY SERVICES

Food services, housekeeping, transportation, the maintenance of buildings and grounds, and the purchase of equipment and supplies are the common auxiliary services necessary to operate an educational program. Each service may require a large staff of employees and the expenditure of many thousands of dollars every year. Except in very small units, responsibility for the daily operation of the individual service is delegated by the administrator to a staff employee. As a professional operating within the system, it is helpful to the business educator to understand the scope and nature of each major auxiliary service provided. It is also advisable to maintain cordial relationships with those who maintain the equipment and purchase the supplies for the business education program. When it comes time to purchase new equipment, the alert business educator has a list of needs and specifications ready for those who do the purchasing.

STUDENT SERVICES

Guidance, counseling, and job placement; admissions and registration; health services; and the maintenance of student records are important examples of the types of student services for which the educational administrator is responsible. The business educator should maintain especially close liaison with the administrative unit responsible for guidance, counseling, and job placement. The recruitment of students for the business education program can be more successful if the business educator provides guidance specialists with graphic, factual information about the program. The business educator is in a unique position to assist in job placement, especially if a cooperative work experience program is available.

BUILDINGS

The school administrator, especially during times of growth, gives a great deal of attention to the construction and renovation of buildings for the educational program. This responsibility divides itself into two parts: (1) obtaining the funds and (2) planning and supervising the construction. Securing money for school buildings is largely a political process. That is, the administrator and the governing board must secure the backing of those who levy and pay the taxes in the case of public education or those who support them in the case of private institutions. The business educator should be cautious about becoming involved in this political process until the strategy of the administrator is fully understood. Even then, it is wise not to try to promote the cause of a new building without first clearing all actions with the administrator. It is usually more productive, for example, to have outside support for new buildings than simply to have highly vocal internal support on the part of teachers and administrators.

In the planning of construction, however, the business educator can contribute a great deal. Rather than being concerned with the physical shape and appearance of space, the business educator should communicate to the architects or other planners the functional requirements of the space and the prospects for future growth. Such factors as total square footage per program, noise control, need for electrical outlets, security, and general office atmosphere are some of the kinds of functional requirements that need to be spelled out to the architects.

LIAISON WITH PUBLIC AND PRIVATE GROUPS

The top administrator in an educational unit speaks for the unit. Other administrators assist in relaying to public and private groups the status, goals, and needs of the organization. The business educator may be called upon to speak (or write) for the organization at large or for the business education program only. In either case the business educator should remember that outside groups view any representative of the organization as representing the entire organization. Therefore, if the business educator has internal problems, they should be taken to the administration, not outside groups, for resolution. Likewise, the organization of advisory committees for business education should be cleared with the school administrator to ensure that the purposes and functions of the committee agree with the overall policies and objectives of the educational unit.

EVALUATION THROUGH RESEARCH

Educational administrators, under increased pressures for accountability, are becoming more and more involved in evaluation by controlled, quantitative methods. Research specialists are employed by many units not only to gather facts about the operation of programs but also to solve educational problems through applied research. The business educator can assist in the evaluation and research responsibilities of the administrator in several ways: (a) help determine the type of research to be conducted, (b) conduct evaluation studies of the business education program, and (c) cooperate with outside agencies that are conducting research in the educational setting. Modern-day administrators are likely to respond more positively to recommendations based upon good research than those founded upon subjective speculation.

POLICY FORMULATION

Although overall policy formulation is the ultimate responsibility of the governing body of the educational unit, the administrator participates in this activity by recommending policies or policy changes to the governing body. If a policy manual for the educational unit is available, the business educator should secure a copy and become familiar with it. Any apparent inconsistencies, recommended changes, or additions should be communicated to the next higher administrator by the business educator. Occasionally, a policy statement or change is formulated by committee action. The business educator should be willing to serve on such committees and thereby participate in the policy-making role of the administrator.

DOCUMENTATION

An important element of most of the previously discussed tasks of the educational administrator that warrants separate discussion is documentation. Documentation refers to the keeping of written records as to how administrative decisions were made. Most administrative systems have elaborate and accurate recordkeeping systems for budgeting, payroll, purchasing, student data, and inventory. Unfortunately, such systems often do not exist for the historical information upon which many important decisions have been made. Thus it becomes necessary for each new administrator to "discover the world" anew for many important decisions. The business educator should keep a file of background information for decisions that have been made which affect the business education program. Such a file can be valuable to the business educator as well as the new administrator who may not be familiar with past decisions.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATIONS

A second element of the previously discussed tasks that deserves separate attention is internal communications. Obviously, none of the responsibilities of the administrator can be performed satisfactorily without good communications within the organization to which the tasks apply. The professional business educator, however, can enhance the process of internal communications by being a good receiver of administrative communications. A good receiver listens and reads carefully and asks for clarification when the signals are mixed. A good receiver makes an effort to decode the confusing message rather than to take delight in circling the typing errors.

SUMMARY

The business educator is concerned with delivering the best instruction possible to students enrolled in the program. The business educator should also be concerned with, and empathic to, the responsibilities of the administrator. Such concern includes becoming more knowledgeable about general educational administration, being able to react appropriately to various administrative signals, and contributing to the performance of the tasks themselves.

CHAPTER 3

Modern Concepts of Educational Supervision

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Business educators have played an important role in training students for various occupations and in preparing them to solve the numerous economic problems encountered as consumers. But with the fast-moving changes in job requirements and life-styles, the challenge of further updating business curriculums is intensifying daily. No longer can classroom instructors be expected to maintain ongoing instructional programs and at the same time make the many needed curriculum changes to assure that subject matter content is relevant to the world of work and existing economic conditions. Business teachers need guidance and assistance from properly trained supervisory personnel if they are to acquire new knowledge, insights, and skills.

Today, as in the past, good school and teacher supervision should have as a major concern the development of a continuous in-service program that will assure teacher self-development and avoid personal obsolescence. Equally important is the maintenance of a public awareness program designed to develop good school-community relationships. Those charged with the responsibility of providing supervision must be effective communicators—individuals who are capable of sharing with fellow instructors and the school community a vision of the possibilities of education and of helping to make that vision a reality.

QUALIFICATIONS OF SUCCESSFUL SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL

When administrators search for candidates who can assume supervisory positions, it is only natural that they frequently turn to instructors who have demonstrated superior teaching skills. They certainly appear at first glance to be the best qualified. However, the qualities that make for a good classroom teacher and those that make for a successful supervisory person are different—although one person may indeed have both sets of qualities. Obviously there are some particular qualities to look for in selecting supervisory personnel.

Ability to get along with and direct people. No matter what other qualifications a supervisory candidate may have, the ability to get along with the staff, students, parents, and other persons in the school community is paramount. During the past few years, this ability to get along with a wide variety of people has become increasingly important. Many supervisors have found it difficult, but necessary, to adjust their methods and attitudes to keep pace with ever-changing school and community environments. In such an atmosphere, the supervisor's own attitudes and behavior and the awareness of how others feel and act have assumed considerable importance.

Adequate educational preparation and experiences. A basic knowledge in all areas of the field is essential if a supervisor is to understand the practical problems faced by classroom instructors. Candidates for supervisory positions should possess some expertise about the following: curriculum development, teaching methodologies, facility planning, equipment acquisition, basic administrative skills, fundamental research techniques, cocurricular activities, and evaluation processes. It is essential that supervisory personnel have teaching experience, preferably in a variety of subjects and grade levels. With the increased demand for continuing education, it is desirable that supervisory candidates also have teaching experiences in adult programs. Such experiences will assist them in organizing curriculum offerings and preparing instructors. Occupational experiences outside the field of education are also helpful in developing relevant instructional programs.

Ability to communicate. In this era of the computer and instant news, information dissemination has become an essential ingredient in a successful school operation. More and more often, the success or failure of educational activities hinges on the ability of supervisory personnel to compile meaningful data and to convey information quickly and accurately. Candidates for supervisory positions must be highly proficient in written and oral communications. Today's school staff is no longer satisfied simply to be told what to do. Better educated and more aware than their predecessors, they want reasons and explanations. Classroom teachers want to contribute ideas and ask questions. Supervisors must be better informed and more articulate, highly competent in the art of communications, so that they respond effectively to the staff and other segments of the school community. They must also be good listeners, capable of establishing upward communication channels and keeping them constantly open.

Other personal characteristics. Successful supervisory personnel have many other identifiable traits. They must be interested in learning more, constantly seeking information about current happenings in their field and in the community they serve. When resolving problems that arise, they must assume a fair and cooperative attitude, seeking help and advice from others to find a mutual and satisfactory solution. Administrators seek people for supervisory positions who are dependable—who set high performance standards for themselves and expect a similar quality of work from the staff. Supervisory personnel must be willing and eager to accept responsibility and assume the obligations that go with the job. They must be individuals the staff can trust, always sensitive to the needs and feelings of those with whom they work. Such persons are those with whom the staff and members of the school community feel free to discuss both professional and personal problems.

CREATING A DEMOCRATIC ATMOSPHERE FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

The supervisory function is by definition a leadership responsibility. Merely being appointed by a local school board to an educational supervisory position does not assure that one will be accepted as a leader. The supervision of teachers differs significantly from directing workers in industry, for teachers are professional colleagues frequently having similar training and experiences. They are fully entitled to a large measure of freedom and discretion in the use of educational methods and are often highly individualistic in their ideals. To earn the respect and confidence of a staff, it is frequently necessary to enter into a give-and-take relationship with co-workers, wholly ignoring position. Supervisory personnel who show respect to and treat with equal fairness those with whom they work usually find themselves within the group rather than on the outside.

In working with their colleagues, supervisory personnel should be governed by the values teachers are seeking to instill in students—respect for the individual, freedom of speech, and rule of the majority where collective decisions must be made. Ample opportunity must always be afforded for full and free discussion, but supervisory personnel must be alert to discern the time for decision. Further discussion may become repetitive and degenerate into greater controversy. Supervisory personnel should know when to take the initiative in crystallizing group thinking and translating group decisions into action.

If a proper atmosphere is to be created, supervisory techniques must reflect the basic principles of a democratic society. Current supervisory practices should emphasize preventive, constructive, and creative activities conducted in a democratic setting without losing sight of actual conditions and demands. These practices are equally effective with experienced and beginning instructors when used properly, and they promote the type of democratic environment essential for improving instruction.

Often supervisors can detect through classroom visits a sign of deteriorating class morale or some other difficulty that may at a later time become a serious obstacle to students' educational progress. By tactfully sharing this information with the instructor, both can cooperatively plan to prevent the anticipated difficulty or develop procedures to meet it successfully. Should the instructor's personality or lack of self-confidence be a major consideration, it may be best to lead the instructor with questions and suggestions, permitting a self-analysis and solution of the particular problem. Other teachers appreciate hearing how a co-worker has successfully met the same or a similar difficulty. It may sometimes be necessary to describe a hypothetical situation in which the anticipated difficulty appears and ask for a possible plan to resolve the problem.

Planning and preparation can frequently prevent major problems from developing. Once this practice has been accepted by the staff, it can be expanded and utilized in resolving numerous other difficulties. By using preventive supervisory practices in a democratic atmosphere, the instructor becomes more self-confident and better able to meet future challenges.

Constructive supervisory practices recognize that each instructor will not achieve perfection, but that the best procedure to improve professional effectiveness is through enforcing strengths and inducing growth. The attention of the supervisor and instructor should be fixed upon the future with both striving to achieve the type of educational program that has been deemed desirable for their particular district. Supervisory personnel should not engage in fault-finding tactics, but rather seek steady growth in the ability to better carry out the activities already well performed. Instructors will be happier and more receptive to sharing ideas about good teaching in this type of environment.

With the deluge of new demands placed on educators during the past few decades, a need has developed for more creative supervision—that which requires a combined effort on the part of the educational staff and assures the utmost use of talents and abilities. The ultimate objective of creative supervision emphasizes liberating instructors' intelligence and energies so that they can use their talents and abilities in an effort to become master teachers. To give direction to these types of efforts, supervisory personnel must have patience and tact, professional self-assurance balanced by intellectual capabilities, flexibility and a willingness to learn from others, and a broad vision of educational purpose coupled with a readiness to explore new approaches and techniques.

School curriculums will be changed drastically in the future as the public demands greater input. Curriculum decision making will involve the use of many advisory groups including board members, citizens, administrators, supervisory personnel, and classroom teachers; thus assuring a better democratic atmosphere for improving instruction.

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

There are some basic principles supervisory personnel should follow if they are to achieve the self-activated growth desired within a teaching staff and develop the necessary public relations program needed for good school-community rapport.

Comprehensive planning is essential. Supervisory personnel must begin with local district school-community situations as they exist. A thorough analysis of prevailing conditions and practices must be made before an effective program can be implemented. During this period of analysis, supervisors must be prepared to face the day-to-day problems as they occur and make the best of them. That's what supervision is all about—resolving immediate needs and providing leadership in formulating long-term objectives and plans.

A major challenge for educational supervisory personnel is to keep ideals high while recognizing how much must be done and where to start. Too frequently supervisors fail to make a realistic assessment of the situation. Staff and community attitudinal conditions, which are extremely important and sometimes difficult to determine, are not fully analyzed.

Once the study has been completed, supervisory personnel should formulate their own plan of action containing many alternative suggestions so that various projects can be presented to administrators and the staff for their consideration. Both must have ample opportunities to provide input. Many activities require considerable lead time for preparation before the staff can actually get down to work. The way to maintain enthusiasm at a high level is to always have new challenges ready for the staff. You cannot constantly overload teachers, nor expect them to work at top speed all of the time. A change of pace and a break between jobs is good. However, when a job is completed, there is a psychological letdown. Unless a new challenge is soon presented, morale will suffer.

Supervisors, particularly those who have just assumed new positions, should initially attempt to give some form of simple, constructive help to the staff. It might consist of providing additional data or assistance during the annual preschool orientation sessions. If the service is recognized and appreciated, there is a likelihood of receptivity that invites further cooperation in the solution of problems that instructors already recognize. Each success, however small, makes the next one easier.

When rapport has been developed, a joint assessment effort involving the staff, school community, and supervisor should be made to determine where the instructional program is, where you want it to be, and how to get there. This process involves gathering information from various sources, summarizing the responses, formulating objectives, determining priorities, setting time schedules for planning, structuring a detailed program of work, ascertaining a time line and budget, and developing appropriate evaluation criteria.

The greater the chance an educational staff has to make a real contribution in planning and implementing programs to improve instruction effectiveness, the more satisfaction they will get from their work. Obviously supervisors cannot think of everything. In many cases, teachers who actually handle classroom situtions day after day are in a better position to figure out how things might be done more effectively. With a little encouragement, they will come up with some excellent ideas, assuring the input necessary for a comprehensive planning cycle.

An effective communications system must be initiated and maintained. Without an adequate information system, educational activities would remain at a standstill. Communication channels and methods must be carefully planned, from source to receiver, throughout the local school district. Provisions must be made to assure that a three-dimensional system is initiated so that information is shared with the staff, that input can travel up from the staff to supervisory personnel, and that sufficient data is given out to the school community.

Even the best-planned communications system can occasionally fail to get the message through. But there are some specific hazards that supervisory personnel should be aware of in planning and implementing information systems. Unless the staff receives a constant flow of information at all times, they will suspect a communication that "happens" just prior to a major change or in the midst of controversial school-community issue. It is also possible, in some cases, to keep the staff too well informed. They "tune out" important information because of an oversaturation of facts and figures. To alleviate this problem, supervisory personnel should schedule short-term information campaigns on various subjects throughout the school year. Communications must be relayed in terms that the staff understands and can relate to. Wording must appeal to staff members emotionally if they are to accept the message. It's an old but true adage that good communications depend as much on how you say it as on what you have to say.

Opportunities must be provided each year for face-to-face conversations with each staff member, for such activities are far superior to written or printed communications of any type. It is equally important that news of specific interest to the staff, such as a new teaching assignment, be given to them before it's released to the public. Supervisors must be constantly alert to respond promptly and thoughtfully to any ideas, complaints, or other information that the staff passes along. If questions from the staff relate to confidential information, a sound reason as to why the data cannot be shared should be given.

To get their message across, supervisors must be capable of using many communication tools including handbooks, newspapers, letters, memos, pamphlets, filmstrips, films, videotapes, and meetings. When utilizing the various communication tools delineated, care must always be given to emphasize the importance of staff involvement and the necessity to plan cooperatively as the best means for achieving success. Only through close observation can supervisory personnel ascertain those tools that are most effective within their own locality.

Continuous in-service staff training programs must be conducted. Not too many years ago, training and development needs in local school districts were minimal. Usually beginning teachers had acquired the necessary subject matter knowledge and teaching skills in preservice training; what little additional knowledge and skills they had to learn could be done on the job. Curriculums, teaching methodologies, equipment, and other instructional aids remained relatively stable. When changes did occur, they were gradual and could be handled almost as a matter of routine. Obsolescence was not a constant threat.

Today all this has changed. Staff training and development play a vital role in meeting the challenges that accompany today's fast changes. Schools are being asked to assume new educational tasks and provide broader curriculum offerings that require a continuous restructuring and evaluation process. New teaching-learning systems are being introduced each year, using multimedia materials that employ sight and sound in various combinations. Inflation is cutting the size of the tax dollar at the same time the public is demanding more student achievement at both ends of the learner continuum and greater relevancy in course offerings.

Supervisory personnel face a major task in convincing the public that tax dollars are needed for staff training and development. To foster better understanding, a written training plan should be formulated that will serve as a working guide for the staff and local board of education. The plan should include philosophy statements, administrative procedures, training priorities, and long-range goals. Without such a plan, districts will not have an articulated program, but rather an endless succession of unrelated activities and a nonstandardized selection procedure for trainee candidates.

Some progress has been made by supervisors in acquiring local district funds for staff in-service activities such as preschool training sessions, released time for visiting and observing other educational agencies and community resources, conference attendance, and tuition reimbursement programs. However, most of these activities are of short duration and have in many cases not provided the in-depth study needed. Extensive in-service training programs with internships and extended leaves with pay will be required if teachers are to incorporate current knowledge in course offerings and be aware of changes in practices and procedures resulting from improved technology. Most supervisors recognize that the school's potential for strengthening its educational program is heavily dependent upon its capacity to develop the talents and potentialities of the staff.

Ample opportunities must be provided for improving staff morale. Good morale is critical to every organization. No matter how capable a staff may be, when morale sags so does performance. Experienced supervisors recognize that good morale cannot be built once and let go at that. It must be maintained on a day-to-day basis. Obviously, supervisory personnel cannot provide everything that staff members want, but they should be aware of desires, show appreciation of how the staff feels, and satisfy needs whenever possible.

Numerous behavioral scientists have made studies in recent years concerning what staff members want from their job. Their findings have laid the groundwork for developing new supervisory techniques. They have found that as soon as a person's basic physiological needs have been satisfied, other needs become important, some of the major ones being job security, the need to belong, the need for self-esteem and recognition from others, and the need to become what one is capable of becoming. However, supervisors cannot assume that everyone wants more on-the-job responsibilities and that their value systems are identical. As teaching staffs become increasingly pluralistic, methods of dealing with them must become more flexible. Highly regimented policies are not very effective when working with the staff diversity in most local educational agencies. Efforts must be made by educational supervisory personnel to match teaching assignments and other related tasks more closely to the instructor's personal values and abilities.

Supervisors should schedule a large segment of time each year for beginning or new teachers in the system. Every effort should be made to thoroughly orient them to the local district's philosophy, past achievement, present and future goals, and other pertinent data that will enable instructors to have a better understanding of the school and community. Educational supervisory personnel who work cooperatively with instructors in gleaning useful information from minor mistakes that occur and in assisting with professional growth during their probationary years will have a positive effect upon staff morale.

Staff members must always be made to feel that they are important to the success of the local district's educational efforts, that they contribute to the overall services provided, and that their daily work influences school-community relationships. With proper supervisory leadership, staff members will identify their personal progress with the combined efforts of other instructors in the local educational agency. However, there is no easy formula for building a sense of belonging.

Experienced supervisors recognize that staff members' self-esteem can be established through the mastery of their immediate environment and the development of a feeling that they and their work are important. By showing confidence in the staff and delegating new responsibilities, provided they are not already overburdened, supervisors can further strengthen instructors' faith in themselves and their work. Alert and sensitive supervisory personnel give special recognition to those who continuously perform in an outstanding manner. They must also quickly identify developing talents among the staff and find a way to put them to use, thus assuring maximum staff utilization, growth, and recognition.

Evaluation must be a continuous ongoing process. With the many new mandates for more accountability and competency-based educational programs, great emphasis is being placed upon developing task statements, learner standards of performance, and meaningful evaluation processes. Supervisors must be highly proficient in preparing evaluation instruments and in utilizing the results to further improve instructional effectiveness. Periodic evaluations must be conducted to assess the teaching process and learner achievement.

When evaluating the instruction staff, supervisors should sit down with each staff member and discuss what has been achieved during the school year and how well it was done. Major emphasis should be placed on further accomplishments rather than on past strengths and weaknesses. By emphasizing future goals and achievements, supervisors can direct the staff member toward work that needs to be done. Experienced supervisors frequently ask staff members to complete their own evaluation questionnaires prior to the meeting so that both sets of data can be discussed. Input should be acquired from staff members during the evaluation concerning their major achievements, need for further growth or improvement, desire for supervisory assistance, and personal goals for the next school year. Informal interim reviews can be conducted throughout the school year to assure that progress is being made in fulfilling the established goals.

Good supervisors recognize that teacher performance evaluations are only one segment of the educational assessment process. Instructors must have sufficient teaching aids, adequate facilities and equipment, and enough preparation time to assure quality instructional programs. Group performances must be assessed in terms of course objectives and desired learner competencies. Individual student achievements must be measured through the use of pre- and posttests so that results can be diagnosed and appropriate learning activities prescribed. With the increased demand from school communities for better student achievements and more realistic course content, educational supervisory personnel must work constantly to assess and to restructure existing curriculums based upon evaluation results.

Heavy responsibilities have been placed on local educational institutions during the past two decades because of the knowledge explosion and the advancement in teaching and learning techniques. Local administrators and school communities can ill afford to have teaching staffs who have slipped into instructional ruts and curriculums that have a 20-year time lag in subject matter. But the changes desired will not happen without new financial commitments for public awareness programs, in-service teacher development programs, and the most important factor—good educational supervisory personnel.

CHAPTER 4

Social, Economic, and Demographic Forces Affecting Business Education

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Business education programs exist in a mosaic of complex and changing social, economic, and demographic forces. Individually and collectively, those forces profoundly affect the purposes and content of business education courses and programs, enrollments, teaching methods and materials, guidance, budget, staffing, equipment, and supplies. Effective business education supervisors at any level—local, state, or national—must cope with those forces as they are and as they change, keeping a particular eye on those which have the greatest significance for their level of responsibility.

THE FORCES

Some of these forces and their effects on business education programs are rather obvious; some are more subtle. Birth rate is, of course, one of the more obvious forces, and its effects on school enrollments are generally well recognized. Until relatively recently, for example, the American educational system has been hard pressed to expand fast enough to keep pace with the ever-increasing enrollments caused, in large part, by the high birth rates of the 1950's and early 1960's. The birth rate has now declined, however, and the reverse effects on school enrollments are already evident. Many elementary schools have already been closed or consolidated with others, programs have been cut, and teachers have been eliminated.

The enrollment decline will hit high schools with maximum impact during the mid-1980's, with a projected enrollment decrease in New York State high schools, for example, of some 17 to 20 percent. The probable consequences for business education are easily imagined: decreased enrollments overall, small classes, curtailed curriculums, reduced faculties, decreased expenditures. While this particular change is occurring at both the statewide and national level, relatively rapid increases or decreases in school enrollments may occur on a much more restricted geographical base, such as a region or district, as the result of population shifts that are caused by changes in employment or the urban-suburban-rural movement.

Density of population and other characteristics of population such as parental income, level of education, ethnic background, and sociocultural interests are variables that have substantial impact on business education programs. These forces, coupled with the level of business activity in a community, are real keys to the ability and willingness of the community to support the diversified educational enterprise that is necessary to meet late-twentieth century needs. Fortunately, competent educational leaders have become increasingly skilled in appraising these forces and in projecting educational plans that are realistically based on them.

The condition of the national, state, and local economy must be of great concern to the business education planner. In general, when economic times are good, when jobs are plentiful and the demand for workers is high regardless of the workers' real competence, vocational business education becomes less important and less socially desirable or acceptable. At such times, general education and academic subjects are stressed at the secondary level, and the liberal arts and sciences reign supreme at the college level. In this atmosphere, business education enrollments decline and expenditures for vocational programs, staff, teaching materials, equipment, and supplies are grudgingly made. Business educators might tighten their belts and make appropriate adjustments, such as stressing the nonvocational and personal-use values of business subjects.

As the economic tide turns and jobs become scarce, however, competition for jobs becomes keen, worker competence is reestablished as a criterion of employment, and job standards are raised. Vocational education then regains appeal and acceptability, enrollment pressures mount, and business education supervisors must adapt and expand their functions to meet the ever-growing demand—often, again, with too little money and too little time to do the job well. At least one collegiate business teacher education program in the Northeast experienced this phenomenon recently when liberal arts students literally flocked into shorthand and typewriting courses with the hope of building a salable skill that would enable them to find jobs in a tight labor market. Enrollments jumped by as much as 700 percent; faculty and equipment resources were strained to the maximum.

For the local supervisor, detailed information about the local economy and the existing local market for business-trained persons, and probable changes in that job market, is of utmost concern. How many jobs and what kinds of jobs are available, how many and what kinds of jobs business graduates get, and what success graduates have in these jobs are questions to which answers are needed if business education program planners are to make intelligent decisions about many aspects of business education programs. Equally necessary, of course, are facts concerning the number of students who do not finish high school programs, the number of graduates who go on for further education, and the type of education they seek or are able to find.

Over relatively long periods of time, significant changes occur in society's concern for and attitudes toward freedom, work, conformity, security, and individual responsibility. Many of those changed attitudes underlie the growth of "big" government and the proliferation of social legislation in recent decades, legislation bearing on issues such as unemployment insurance, health insurance, welfare programs, Social Security, wages and working conditions, discrimination in employment, and consumer protection. For the business education supervisor, all such changes compel appropriate changes in program, professional activities, attitudes, and perhaps, changes in supervisory style.

More subtle changes in these forces also have substantial impact on business education programs. For example, today's youth are maturing at an earlier age than a generation or two ago; this change has resulted in the redesigning of junior high schools and the creation of the middle school, with substantial implications for a change in the early curriculum of business education. As sex differences are minimized and equality of educational opportunity and employment opportunity are further extended to male and female alike, the business education supervisor may reasonably expect some shifting in enrollments—perhaps even the reappearance of males in stenography classes and an increase of females in management and accounting classes. These changes will compel business educators to review their prejudices as a first step in developing more evenhanded treatment of males and females and will also result in a review and redesign of learning materials and experiences to eliminate sexually biased stereotypes and references.

Changes in the early learning experiences of youth have great significance for the kinds of learning activities and materials that schools should use. For example, young people who have watched and listened to television for three to six hours or more a day are likely to be "turned off" by the conventional classroom presentation wherein the teacher is the only visual and auditory stimulus. Graduates of *Sesame Street, Electric Company, Mr. Rogers,* and *Captain Kangaroo* are likely to be bored by the relatively inefficient, bumbling, disorgnized instruction of many live classrooms. Students who have owned and operated their own record players, tape recorders, film equipment, FM and CB radios since early childhood expect to use them in the classroom; in too many cases, they're way ahead of their teachers. Since electronic calculators are now priced within the means of nearly any student, business educators can expect increased pressure from students to use those machines rather than more primitive tools and methods of calculation. Copying machines of many kinds, as well as electric typewriters and other electric, electromechanical, or electronic devices are now a part of the everyday scene; business education curriculums, methods, materials—and teachers—must be adapted to the change.

The vocabulary, the art styles, the form and arrangement of printed or written instructional materials must be adjusted to the changing levels of maturity and sophistication and to the variety of ethnic background that is found in business students. Styles and functions in such matters change just as manner, bearing, dress, speech, and morals change. Business educators must mold change as well as adjust to it.

Business supervisors and their co-workers must also be tuned to the very subtle changes that occur in highly intangible areas of human values such as the definition of and desire for success, the desire for public recognition and status, the desire for security, the concern for self and the concern for others. They must be sensitive to changes in attitudes toward personal traits such as honesty, punctuality, loyalty, cooperation, courtesy, self-respect, and obedience. Changed attitudes toward these human concerns, especially among business students, business teachers, and employers, have implications for what is taught and how. They add another major dimension to the relationships of teachers with students, and of supervisors with teachers. Teachers, especially, must be attuned to changes in student motivation and compulsions, their concepts of reward and punishment, and their value standards. Perhaps one of the most challenging tasks for a teacher is to keep pace with the subtle changes that occur between student generations in the meanings of words and terms, to keep in touch with what is acceptable, humorous, or ribald.

One of the more subtle forces at work in business education is, of course, the social and cultural background of business educators themselves. As their backgrounds change, as their values and perceptions change, as the nature of their professional preparation changes, so may change their influence on the students whose learning they direct. The supervisor of business education must be cognizant at all times of the simultaneous changes that are taking place in the student body and in the teaching faculty and must maintain harmonious relationships between the two groups, perhaps adjusting procedures of recruitment and selection of faculty members to accord with changed conditions.

Some changes in the job market and the demand for workers with new kinds of skills, knowledges, and attitudes are likely to occur with a surprisingly rapid and overwhelming impact. Many of today's business educators have witnessed or been a part of the dramatic rise of automated data processing and the almost overwhelming demand for teachers, equipment, training programs, and qualified workers. Other changes occur much more slowly and less dramatically. For example, major changes may be taking place, or may have already taken place, in the stenographic and accounting fields, but whether those shifts will result in an increased need or a decreased need for workers and teachers is still difficult to project. Programs for economically, socially, culturally, and physically disadvantaged students have each made demands on business education for the design of appropriate programs and the education or reeducation of teachers equipped with the necessary competencies. Further program changes in business education programs are inevitable; the major questions are only what the changes will be, and when and how they can be discovered.

STUDYING THE FORCES

Functionally effective business education supervisors use a variety of procedures to keep informed about the present state of these forces as they affect the level of operation and to anticipate probable changes. Perhaps the most important of these procedures is the systematic involvement and education of their own co-workers, many of whom must first be sensitized to the existence and importance of these forces before becoming actively involved in identifying and evaluating existing forces, probable changes, and their significance for business education programs.

The supervisor must exercise strong leadership in building the group's enthusiasm for the painstaking search, inquiry, criticism, and planning that must be done in a relatively abstract area. By the very nature of their training, experience, and disposition, many business educators prefer to work with more tangible, specific, and concrete problems. Genuine group concern and effective working relationships can usually be built over the long haul, however, by sustained group activities which produce visible, concrete accomplishments.

The successful program usually requires many individual conferences with the supervisor and teachers, small group and large group meetings, speakers, extensive reading, substantial amounts of systematic investigation, and much solid homework by the supervisor and by the fellow workers. This activity might well be organized and led by a standing committee or "watchtower group" specifically charged with focusing attention on present and future forces that have significance for the business education program. A spirit of "looking down the road" for 5, 10, or 20 years should be engendered. While much such contemplation of the future may be misdirected and inaccurate, time so spent should increase perceptions of the forces and should result in more effective action on current problems. The existence of such a committee, however, should in no way relieve the supervisor or any other member of the total group from personal responsibility for keeping abreast of developments.

If members of the group have had relatively little formal or informal education in fields such as economics, psychology, sociology, political science, or cultural anthropology, they are likely to encounter some difficulty in understanding the implications of social, cultural, economic, and other forces for business education programs. If such is the case, participants should be encouraged to look for appropriate formal course work in the rudiments of those fields or to at least undertake some basic, orientative reading in those fields.

Much of the data and the provocative ideas needed by business education supervisors and their co-workers can be found in the general literature, in the professional literature of education and business education, and in the specialized literature of business and manufacturing. General publications such as *Time, Newsweek, U.S. News and World Report, Fortune, The New York Times, The Wall Street Journal,* local newspapers, and a variety of specialized local publications frequently contain articles that should stimulate creative thinking or provide a helpful factual base for constructive analysis of the present and the future. Publications of federal agencies such as the Department of Commerce, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare should be reviewed frequently, as should publications from similar state and local government agencies. *The Statistical Abstract of the United States,* published annually by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, is an especially useful source of information.

Professional publications in education and business education such as the *Phi Delta Kappan, Review of Educational Research, Today's Education, Chronicle of Higher Education, Business Education Forum, Journal of Business Education, Delta Pi Epsilon Journal, American Vocational Journal, Balance Sheet, Collegiate News and Views, Business Education World,* as well as state and local association journals, frequently contain information and ideas that are either directly useful or that can trigger the birth of other studies and creative ideas. Particular attention should be given to the full reports and to reviews of well-founded research.

Business publications such as *Management World, Administrative Management,* and *Management Review,* as well as the "house organs" and brochures produced by equipment manufacturers and publishing houses, are an invaluable source of information that should be systematically reviewed and digested by business education supervisors and their colleagues. Trends in business practice and in business equipment can often be detected through study of such media.

Professional association meetings are an unbeatable source of information exchange and professional stimulation for the business supervisor and other business educators. While participation simply as a member of the audience is usually productive, participation as a speaker, discussant, or program leader is usually even more beneficial. The professional business educator who makes a presentation or plans a program will inevitably engage in some forced thinking and generate some new ideas or perceive new relationships. Even though association programs may seem sterile, time-worn, and repetitive—especially to the veteran of many conventions—the opportunities at professional meetings for stimulating private conversations or periods of reflective thought are numerous. Just getting away from familiar settings and familiar problems is refreshing and provocative of new perceptions. The successful supervisor encourages and promotes the involvement of co-workers as active participants in professional meetings, recognizing that professional stimulation and growth, as well as ego satisfaction, are bound to result from the public recognition and praise.

Meetings of professional groups of businessmen such as the Society for the Advancement of Management, the Administrative Management Society, the American Management Association, Kiwanis, and Rotary are invaluable sources of technical business information. Attendance at such meetings helps to build effective working relations and a sense of "community" with local businessmen. Meetings with other types of community groups, such as church and social agencies, can produce mutually useful data and insights and lead to improved working relationships. In fact, many of the forces and problems that concern the business educator are of as great or greater concern to professionals in other fields of social work. Those other professionals may be even more advanced in their knowledge and capability of analyzing these forces, so the business educator should seek their advice and make every effort to engage in cooperative, mutually beneficial activity.

Inevitably, a supervisor of business education will need to conduct some investigative activities designed to produce primary data specific to the individual working situation. Some of those studies should be conducted in concert with other agencies, such as a districtwide school system, a state education department, a supervisory district, or a local or state labor department. Other studies, narrow in scope or limited in time, are better conducted independently. Before launching a major search for primary data, however, the investigator should thoroughly review other local, regional, and national studies; by so doing, the researcher avoids time-wasting duplication of effort and, at the same time, gains insights into productive sources of data and procedures for the study. In far too many cases, business supervisors gather raw data that has already been gathered, sometimes repeatedly, by other agencies. Too frequently investigators also miss the opportunity to systematically tie their studies to other studies by using common designs or instrumentation; thus, they are barred from generating conclusions that would be applicable to a broader geographic or time base and that would be useful to the profession generally.

A thoroughgoing, comprehensive evaluation of a business education program can be an effective way of focusing attention on these forces and discovering aspects of a total program that need to be revised. For example, a program evaluation might reveal ways in which a curriculum has fallen behind the times in terms of the job market, existing job standards, or modern business equipment and practices. By focusing faculty study on characteristics of current students and the society from which they come, or by projecting demographic changes based on current and historical data, needed adjustments in curriculum, teaching methods, and materials could be forecast.

Whether the evaluation of a business education program is instigated by internal or by external agencies, the "insider" group of professional educators is compelled by the design of the usual evaluation instruments to reconsider desirable goals, the present status of the program relative to those desirable goals, and ways of attaining desired improvements. The painstaking data-gathering and data-analysis activities that typically occur during an evaluation inevitably lead to an increased understanding by the participants of the ways in which the several parts of a total business education program must be fitted to the society it presently serves and to the new society that emerges with change.

A note of warning should be sounded, however, to business educators who undertake systematic appraisal of social, economic, and demographic data, including attempts to forecast or project into the future. Much of the data with which they will have to work is incomplete, outdated, or subject to gaps and inaccuracies. Many of the interpretations of data they will encounter are badly distorted by the biases, predilections, and incompetencies of the interpreters. On the one hand, some pessimists or conservatives who interpret all change as a threat to their security will view with alarm all data that suggests change. On the other hand, the confirmed optimist or liberal who sees nothing but good in change will translate all data into a projection of Utopia. In between, of course, lie some statisticians who present welters of undigested data, leaving to the reader the almost impossible task of finding meaning in raw numbers. The business education supervisor who would lead co-workers through intelligent and rational analysis of data to sensible interpretations and functional plans based on these forces must frequently resist the extremes—the pessimists, the optimists, the number players, the hucksters, the fads, the fantasies, and the myths—in favor of the less dramatic middleground of reality and truth.

CHAPTER 5

Needed Concern of Business Education for Target Groups

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In addition to concern for the improvement of the regular business education programs, the supervisor or administrator must give special attention to such target groups as the physically handicapped and the economically, culturally, and educationally disadvantaged. Such attention must be not only for secondary school students who have these special needs but also for out-of-school youths and adults who are unemployed or underemployed.

Each of these target groups has identifiable characteristics that must be considered before programs to meet the special needs can be administered and subsequently supervised. Identifying the target groups and understanding their special needs are the first steps in administering adequate programs.

Physically handicapped. The physically handicapped may be easily identified by the physical disability; however, the possible concomitant disabilities must also be identified, although they may not be so esaily observable. The physically handicapped, of course, may have no mental or social disability. In this case, providing for the physical disability is the basic need. However, if the physical handicap is accompanied by mental, educational, or cultural disadvantage, additional provisions must be made.

Economically, culturally, educationally disadvantaged. The economically, culturally, and educationally disadvantaged have been grouped together because the three elements are often closely linked. Educational disadvantage frequently is the result of economic and social/cultural differences in background. It must be recognized, however, that some individuals may be economically, culturally, or educationally disadvantaged without belonging to either of the other two groups. That is, individuals may be economically disadvantaged without being culturally or educationally disadvantaged; they may be culturally disadvantaged without being economically disadvantaged; or they may be educationally disadvantaged without belonging in either of the other two groups. Identifying the nature of the disadvantage is a first step in building programs that will bridge the educational gap for the disadvantaged individual.

Unemployed out-of-school youths. The unemployed young people who have dropped out of school also have special needs that school administrators must address themselves to in order to alleviate social and economic problems, as well as those of the individual. Young people drop out of school for a variety of reasons that are usually related to one or two basic causes:

1. Dislike of school. This may be related to such problems as dislike of school routine, the lack of challenge in school programs, or the lack of educational background necessary to learning in the present school situation.
2. Economic necessity. Students in some cases must drop out of school in order to assume some of the responsibility for the family finances or for themselves if they are no longer part of a family unit.

The reasons for the dropouts point direction for administrators who are responsible for designing programs.

Unemployed and underemployed adults. This group of adults requires special consideration from administrator/supervisors, for meeting their needs generally requires approachs different from those used with high school-aged young people. Here, the motivation may be high. The difficulty may be in such areas as providing programs that meet varying time availability or in evaluating the educational development of the individual outside formal education and building onto that development.

Capable high school graduates who have received only a general education may not find employment at all or may be employed at levels far below capabilities. Such individuals may need encouragement to seek additional job preparation; certainly a variety of programs should be available at a variety of school levels—adult education through the public schools, community colleges, private schools, four-year colleges, and universities. At best these various avenues should be articulated so that they provide a continuous upward movement for those individuals who start at any one of the various levels and may wish to continue into a degree-granting program.

Other unemployed and underemployed may be capable individuals who have reached adulthood but have not had the advantages of a formal education. Their ages may range widely, but they have a common problem of finding employment that meets their interests, their capabilities, and their financial needs. Women who are entering the labor market after their children are grown or who suddenly find it necessary to be economically independent are often in this category. Their needs may vary from basic job preparation to refresher courses to update previous skills. Whatever the reason for the unemployment or underemployment, it is essential that administrators provide programs that will meet the various adult individual needs so that those individuals can contribute the most of which they are capable for the well-being of our economy.

BUSINESS AND DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION PROVIDE A VEHICLE FOR SUCCESS

After an analysis of the special needs of the physically handicapped and the economically, culturally, and educationally disadvantaged, the business educator must consider carefully how business and distributive preparation can be developed or presented to meet those special needs. The first question the administrator must answer in regard to the physically handicapped is, "What competencies is the individual able to pursue in spite of the handicap? typing? shorthand? accounting? general sales? real estate? insurance? computer work?" Once these determinations are made, the next question is, "Do provisions need to be made for handicaps other than for those that are physical?" Perhaps the last question to be answered in planning programs for handicapped individuals is, "What modifications, if any, are necessary in regard to physical facilities?" Taking into account necessary adjustments suggested by the foregoing questions, the program for the physically handicapped may parallel fairly closely any other productive business or distributive education program.

Program needs for the educationally disadvantaged must be analyzed in relationship to requirements of business and distributive employers. Frequently one of the greatest needs of individuals within this group is that of basic skills—to read, to write, to compute, and to communicate with standards acceptable to the business community. As a consequence, business and distributive education programs must take these needs into consideration and include the teaching of basic skills along with specialized preparation necessary for clerical or distributive employment.

The same needs may be seen for the unemployed, whether youth or adult. The first step with the unemployed may be to provide for basic education skills using business subjects as a vehicle for such learnings. Often in business-related subjects, individuals see for the first time the need for improvement in the basics, and learning can come quickly.

The underemployed may well be beyond educational needs in the basics. They may have solid competencies for employment in office and distributive positions but need advanced preparation in order to help them climb the career ladder for self-satisfaction and increased economic earnings.

PROGRAM DESIGN

While identifying and analysing special needs is a necessary step in program planning, the challenging step is in the design and implementation of programs that will meet the identified needs in such a way that they will not be too fragmented or too costly. Some of the basic considerations might be in regard to articulation with existing programs, provision for flexibility of programs, design for mainstreaming students into existing programs, use of existing facilities whether they are traditional school buildings or other community resources.

Articulation. At their best, programs for special needs students are not dead end. Administrators recognize that students in this classification have many educational weaknesses; therefore, beginning programs to train clerk typists, for example, might necessarily include the development of reading skills, spelling, punctuation, and grammar, along with the typing and related skill development. While this training may be at a very low level, the administrator recognizes that special needs students are often "late bloomers" and that beginning programs should be articulated with existing business education programs at higher levels. Such articulation will assure students that they can pursue continued upward movement if they so desire. Accomplishing this end implies the need for the administrator to know what the existing and planned programs are. Working with administrators from other institutions within the area may be a necessary step in this process.

Flexibility. Rigidly or traditionally structured programs generally cannot fit the variety of needs identified for students who fall into special needs classifications. Rather than providing the same program for all, flexible arrangements must be made.

Individualization is probably a necessity if students of varying ages, backgrounds, and problems are to be developed into employable office or distributive workers. Building a flexible program not only provides the structure for individualization but also provides the opportunity for horizontal movement of students if career goals change. Still another advantage of a program planned for flexibility is that the program itself can be adjusted to meet changing employment demands. For the adult, a flexible time schedule is often a necessity so that there can be open entry at intervals more frequent than the traditional semester basis and at times other than during traditional school hours.

Mainstreaming. For the handicapped or otherwise disadvantaged students who are enrolled in the secondary school, consideration must be given to "mainstreaming." This idea is to include special needs students in regular business and distributive education classes rather than schedule them in separate classes. Setting students apart through the creation of special classes may not be a desirable psychological situation for either special needs or regular students.

The addition of a paraprofessional to assist the regular teacher is one means of providing for the special needs of students within the regular classroom without hindering the progress of others in the class. For business classes, paraprofessionals should have a background related to the specific subject being taught. Also, the paraprofessional and the teacher need supervisory assistance in planning a cooperative approach to their respective duties and responsibilities if the maximum benefit from the arrangement is to be derived. It should be noted that a flexible, individualized program at the secondary level might best serve the needs of all students, especially if mainstreaming of special needs students is a practice.

Use of existing facilities. In an increasingly cost-conscious world and tight education budgets, providing appropriate facilities that meet special needs is an important consideration. For the handicapped and disadvantaged high school student, the foregoing discussion of mainstreaming requires no real need for costly new or different facilities. Adequate space is necessary, of course, for the physically handicapped to accommodate such special needs as wheelchairs or crutches. Individualizing instruction may also call for more than average size classrooms. Otherwise, for secondary school special needs students, regular business education classroom facilities may be adequate.

For the out-of-school special needs groups, other considerations for facilities must be noted. Such questions as these might be asked:

> Is the secondary school building the best place for young adults who have dropped out of school? for the older adult who wishes to return to school?
>
> Would the use of space in an office or retail store, for example, be more desirable if it could be acquired?
>
> Does the regular school classroom provide for flexible programming?

The least expensive way to provide for special needs may not always be the best, and actually it may turn out to be most expensive over a period of time. In particular, if a program as it is designed and implemented does not in fact make employable office or distributive workers, then whatever money has been put into the program will have been to a great extent wasted and will perpetrate a burden on the community. While cost, of course, is important to the administrator in planning programs, it cannot be the only or even the most important consideration.

PROMISING PRACTICES

Some of the programs that have been set up to meet the special needs of students are innovative and well worth examining. Other programs are not what could be called innovative, but they are effective because they utilize good teaching practices. It should be noted that teaching techniques that work for average students may be especially effective for the disadvantaged.

Multimedia instruction. The use of overhead transparencies, games, video and cassette tapes, demonstration lessons, films, and the like are especially useful with special needs students. The administrator and supervisor must recognize that students learn in different ways; therefore, multimedia aids and varied teaching approachs are essential for learning to take place. The greater the variety of teaching techniques, the greater the chance for success with all students, but especially with those who have special needs.

Self-paced instruction. With special needs students there is a basic requirement for self-paced learning, for their levels of achievement and rates of learning will vary more widely than those of average students. If the end goal of a program is to prepare a clerk-typist, for example, the administrator/supervisor must make certain that more than typewriters are provided for the instruction. There may be need for materials to teach reading at varying levels, to reinforce computation and communication skills, and a variety of other special needs that must be met on an individual and self-paced basis. The clerk-typing competencies cannot be accomplished without the development of concomitant skills and knowledges.

Competency-based education. Setting realistic goals for students, designing instructional units to meet those goals, developing learning resources, applying effective teaching techniques, and evaluating student achievement as related to goals, all are essential in a competency-based program. There is little doubt that all students will be helped to reach their potential if program procedures such as the foregoing are implemented. There is also little doubt that special needs students require these identifiable procedures more than average or above-average students. They need to see specific objectives within their horizons, they need to have available a variety of resources utilized effectively to fill their special needs, and they need to evaluate to see specific checkpoints that show them they are making progress. Motivation frequently comes from the self-knowledge of recognizing a goal, making a commitment to the goal, knowing how to go about achieving it, and then recognizing that it has been, in fact, accomplished.

Besides providing for effective teaching practices, the administrator/supervisor looks also at new settings for learning to take place and at the possibility of utilizing community resources in productive ways. In the business education area, the business community is a natural source of support through individual companies, business-related professional and civic groups, or advisory committees.

Partnerships with business. Linking a high school with an individual business can be a productive relationship. Slow and reluctant learners often see the worth of learning skills necessary for success in business if business people rather than teachers present those needs. A partnership with business that ties a specific company to a specific school is most useful if the arrangement is one in which the school identifies the need and the company supplies the support. The close-knit feeling between the partnership company and school is one hard to duplicate through any other arrangement.

Business men and women might be called on for the following support:

Career exposure through on-site visits, informal talks, and part-time, carefully supervised employment

Special instruction with job applications and interview techniques

Loan of company-prepared films

Tutoring in math, English, and business skills

Provision of laboratory facilities for exposure to computers and word processing equipment at nonpeak times

Full-time employment after graduation.

Advisory committees. Committees made up of representative business people can be an effective means of community support. Not only can an advisory committee give information that will help to keep the curriculum up to date and producing the kind of graduates business can hire, but also it can provide extra support for special needs students. The administrator/supervisor has the responsibility of helping the advisory committee members to understand the characteristics of the special needs students. From this mutual understanding, programs can be developed to utilize the special interests and talents of the committee members as well as the facilities of their individual companies.

The items listed as activities provided by companies in a partnership program could also be provided through individual advisory committee members. And, of course, the variety of committee members and company representation provides a wide range of opportunities. However, it should be noted that the partnership described in the previous paragraphs provides a one-to-one relationship that may be hard to duplicate through an advisory committee.

Cooperation among educational institutions. Use of a community college or university facility may help to raise the aspiration level of students who have special needs. One particularly successful program operates in Detroit as a joint project of Wayne State University and the Detroit Public Schools. Senior students who are "not making it" in the regular school program and who have had no previous business training may go to the University campus for their full senior year for two hours daily to participate in the Senior Intensified Program. There they receive an intensive training for one of the job titles of clerk-typist, clerk-stenographer, or retailer. Extensive counseling and a placement service are integral parts of the program. Students who complete the program and who are not immediately employed may return to campus for skill reinforcement. Student enthusiasm runs high, dropouts run low, and the placement rate is one to be envied.

Sheltered workshops. Providing work experience in a sheltered environment is often an excellent buffer for special needs students before they are ready for employment in private business. Setting up such a program requires a laboratory facility in the school that simulates an office, and it requires the cooperation of the business community to contract for work to be done by the student "employees." The program is set up on a nonprofit basis as a production shop. Company assignments are on a contracted basis to be finished in a specified time and for a specified amount of payment. Student employees capable of the various jobs subcontract for the work under the direction of the teacher/supervisor and receive an hourly rate for their services.

SUMMARY

Divergent groups of individuals need special consideration in planning and implementing business and distributive education programs. Many of the special needs of the target groups can be met in the regular classroom, for techniques that are effective for teaching average and above-average students may be even more useful for teaching those with special needs. Specifically, effective programs for special needs students are self-paced; they provide for whatever gaps students may have in their educational backgrounds; they utilize a variety of teaching materials and techniques; and they operate as competency-based programs.

Community resources can and should be utilized to make business and distributive education programs "believable" to special needs students. Business involvement is especially helpful in providing students with a look into the real world of business—what it is like to be employed, what jobs are available, what skills are necessary for specific jobs, and what employment standards must be met.

Other resources such as community colleges and universities should not be overlooked, for they can add glamour and interest to otherwise dull programs from the special needs viewpoint. Postsecondary institutions of all levels must also be considered in regard to the articulation of their programs with beginning or special needs programs. No program should be dead end, nor should it have to be repeated at various educational levels should the student be motivated to advance.

Few, if any, students with special needs are without potential for employment within the business or distributive occupations. The challenge to administrators and supervisors is to determine where the students are educationally, emotionally, and/or physically, then to provide programming that will make it possible for the individuals to capture their own success.

CHAPTER 6

Implications of Career Education for Business Education

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Career education has origins in a number of historical movements in education. Among these are progressive education, life adjustment education, and the organic curriculum of the 1960's. But career education has some new dimensions and has a grass roots acceptance not characteristic of other movements.

Pervasive social, economic, and political changes in American life created an atmosphere in which the career education concept could be articulated and accepted by educational leaders and the lay public throughout the entire nation. Former U.S. Commissioner of Education, Sidney Marland referred to career education as "an idea whose time has come."[1] The term "career education" grasped the imagination of many educators, something which the organic curriculum failed to do even though its avowed purposes were similar to career education.

Administrators who work with career education, regardless of the level of education or the subject areas involved, share a similar need. That need is met through recognizing the various ways in which career education can be dealt with in both common and unique ways in the various disciplines. It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss career education as it relates to business education and to describe ways in which career education is implemented in the business education curriculum. The usual functions of administration—planning, organizing, directing, and evaluating—can then be viewed in light of the task to be accomplished.

WHAT IS CAREER EDUCATION?

Defining the term "career education" has been an important task for those who become involved with it. It is generally seen as a program of education which can relate to all subjects, involve all teachers, assist people of all ages, and address all occupations. It is more than job preparation and job placement, although that becomes an important part of the total program of career education.

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[1] Marland, Sidney P. *Career Education, A Proposal for Reform.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1974.

The purpose of career education, drawn from statements and speeches of many educational leaders, is aptly summarized in a Chamber of Commerce publication as follows:

> Career education complements the primary aim of education of pulling back the curtain that isolates much of education from one of the largest dimensions of life—a man or woman's work. Education and work are artificially separated today, but they were not so divided in the past and should not be so in the future. A linking of education and work is even more important in a dynamic industrial-service economy than in a less complex economy.[2]

An additional statement ties together education for character, work ethic, and careers. It states:

> Career education, therefore, seeks to remove the barriers between education and work by emphasizing preparation for work as a major goal of American education at all levels—from the elementary schools through the secondary schools and the universities, colleges, and technical institutions.[3]

Among those states which passed laws which require school districts to become involved with career education planning and implementation is Michigan. The definition in that legislation, one which has been favorably viewed by several national groups, describes career education as follows:

> . . .. programs for K-12 students designed to create career awareness, orientation, exploration, planning and placement, to maximize career options available, and to provide comprehensive career development. In addition, "career education" shall provide for the full development of students to gain maximum self-development and fulfillment from career preparation and choice, and to maximize the capabilities of students to explore, analyze, prepare for, gain entry to, and succeed in career choices.

THE PLANNING BOARD APPROACH TO CAREER EDUCATION

The planning and programming of career education is a critical step in its administration and implementation. Based upon an assessment of the needs of students and the community, plans must be made for giving direction to the incorporation of goals, activities, and learning experiences appropriate for the local community. Faculty and staff, through in-service and other professional activities, must become knowledgeable about the concept, purposes, and objectives of career education; once such an understanding is developed, planning can be accomplished and implementation will follow.

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[2] Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America. *Career Education*. Washington, D.C.: the Chamber, p. 1.

[3] *Ibid.*

Planning can take many forms and shapes. The "planning board" approach, used in Colorado and California, utilizes 14 or 15 major occupational clusters to identify occupations to be explored in the curriculum. A locally appointed career education committee tentatively decides upon a basic list of careers about which information should be provided in grades K-12. The names of these occupations are placed on a planning board.

The identification and sequencing of careers helps ensure that students will systematically be exposed to a wide range of occupations. The sequencing of careers does not preclude flexibility in exploring particular careers at times other than those designated.

After the occupations to be explored have been decided upon and displayed on a planning board, the local educational agency is ready to sequence the careers in the curriculum. This is done by identifying subject areas in which specific occupations will be treated (see Figure I).

Several approaches to grade sequencing are possible. For example, a "strata approach" assigns occupational clusters to specific courses; various occupations within the cluster are explored at different grade levels. In this way, the fine arts cluster might be assigned to the music and art courses; the communications cluster and business and office cluster might be assigned to reading, language arts, and English courses.

An advantage of the strata approach is that teachers become "experts" on one cluster of occupations. A disadvantage is that teachers may have difficulty making their subject apply to various aspects of the occupation. This approach also fails to cause teachers to concern themselves with the contributions of their subject matter to all careers and all career concepts.

Another approach, the "mosaic," permits any occupation to be assigned to any course (see Figure II). A central belief here is that most of the knowledge and skills taught in school can be related to many different occupations. For example, in an English course such diverse occupations as secretary, actor, air analyst, media director, sheriff, and travel agent might be explored. The elementary grades are devoted to developing general career concepts, and the sequencing of career information begins with middle-school grades. The sequencing of career information could begin with the elementary grades if a local group so wishes.

A major advantage of the mosaic approach is that teachers search for applications of their subject matter to careers of all kinds; personal and social-life applications can also be included. Disadvantages include communicating this plan to school board and community members, and teachers must learn about a large variety of occupations.

A third approach is "vertical" (see Figure III). Here students in all courses explore the same occupations for one cluster of occupations at the same time. For example, in the seventh grade all students explore occupations in the fine arts cluster at the same time. Students in English might explore the occupation of an actor from the point of view of speech

PLANNING BOARD #2

THE STRATA APPROACH TO CAREER EXPLORATION: ASSIGNING STUDY OF EACH JOB CLUSTER TO A SPECIFIC COURSE

SUBJECTS	1st Grade	
Music & Art	DANCE	Ballet Dancer
		Chorus Dancer
		Choreographer
Reading & Language Arts	RADIO & TV	Announcer
		Weather Reporter
	BUSINESS & OFFICE	Secretary
		Office Worker
Arithmetic	PRODUCTION	Assembler
		Stockman
	SALES	Cashier
		Salesman
Social Studies	POLICE AND FIRE	Police Officer
		Fire Fighter
		Sheriff
Science	CONSERVATION	Forest Ranger
		Forest Aid
		Game Warden
Physical Education	SPORTS	Referee
		Coach
	7th Grade	
Fine Arts	ART	Cartoonist
		Art Appraiser
English	RADIO & TV	TV Actor
		Script Reader
	BUSINESS & OFFICE	Legal Secretary
		Office Manager
Math	MANUFACTURER	Designer
		Draftsman
	SALES	Salesperson
		Counter Worker
Social Studies	POLICE AND FIRE	Dispatcher
		Probation Officer
		Security Guard
Science	METEOROLOGY	Climatologist
		Meteorologist
		Weather Clerk
Physical Education	PHYSICAL EDUCATION	Recreation Leader
		Umpire
		Coach
Practical Arts	HOUSING	House Manager
		Home Economist
		Interior Decorator
	ARCHITECTURE	Landscape Architect
		Building Architect

FIGURE I

PLANNING BOARD #2

MOSAIC APPROACH TO CAREER EXPLORATION

SUBJECTS	1st Grade
Music & Art	DEVELOPING GENERAL CAREER CONCEPTS
Reading & Language Arts	
Arithmetic	
Social Studies	
Science	
Physical Education	

	7th Grade		
English	Secretary	Actor	Air Analyst
	Manager	Scriptwriter	Weather Clerk
Math	Tailor	Salesperson	Assembler
	Home Economics	Loan Officer	Stockman
Social Science	Police	Painter	Newsman
	Judge	Cartoonist	Columnist
Science	Climatologist	Chemical Engineer	Surveyor
	Meteorologist		Civil Engineer
Physical Education	Recreation Leader	Lifeguard	Soldier
		Referee	Sailor
Fine Arts	Commercial Artist	Architect	Choreographer
		Housepainter	Dance Instructor
Practical	Surveyor	Seamstress	Display Artist
	Contractor	Test Kitchen Worker	Layout Person

FIGURE II

PLANNING BOARD #2

THE VERTICAL APPROACH TO CAREER EXPLORATION:
STUDYING EACH JOB CLUSTER IN ALL COURSES AT THE SAME TIME

SUBJECTS	1st Grade		
	PUBLIC SERVICE	HEALTH OCCUPATIONS	CONSUMER & HOMEMAKING
Music & Art	Court Recorder . Teacher . Security Guard Lawyer . Civil Defense Worker . Sailor . College Professor . Teacher's Aide . Probation Officer . Fire Fighter	Dentist . Medical Doctor . X-Ray Technician . Chiropractor . Recreation Leader . Dental Hygienist	Day Care Center Worker . Interior Decorator . Dietician . Dressmaker . Elementary Teacher . Home Economist . Tailor . Nutrition Consultant . Professional Babysitter
Reading & Language Arts			
Arithmetic			
Social Studies			
Science			
Physical Education			

	7th Grade		
	FINE ARTS	CONSTRUCTION	PUBLIC SERVICE
English	Actor . Stage Director . Painter . Cartoonist Composer . Drama Coach . Choreographer . Musical Entertainer . Sculptor . Composer . Ballet Dancer . Art Appraiser	Landscape Architect . Civil Engineer . Tractor Operator . Plumber . Draftsman . Surveyor . Brickmason . Welder . Construction Engineer . Painter . Bulldozer Operator	Lawyer . Sheriff . Soldier . Educational Consultant . Security Guard . Police Officer Teacher . Sailor . Probation Officer . Fire Fighter . Judge . Dispatcher
Math			
Social Studies			
Science			
Physical Education			
Fine Arts			
Practical Arts			

FIGURE III

and diction; students in math might look at the financial responsibilities of an art appraiser; students in social studies might look at the occupation of cartoonist and the way in which cartoonists influence people and institutions through their work; students in science might explore the occupation of portrait painter and examine the painter's need to know human anatomy.

One advantage of the vertical approach is that it causes teachers to coordinate efforts and to interact concerning common aspects of careers. It also provides an opportunity for students to study a great variety of occupations within each cluster. A disadvantage is the time required to coordinate activities. Also, students not interested in a career in the cluster being studied may become bored.

OTHER PLANNING APPROACHES

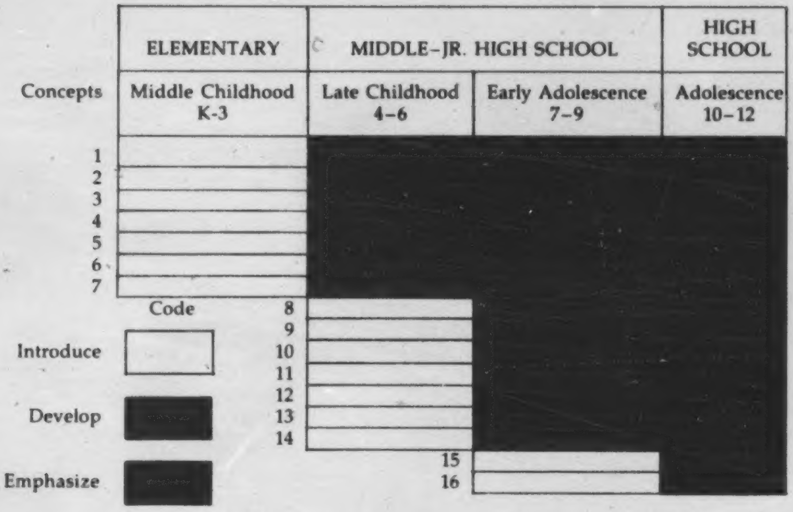
Other approaches to planning include the matrix approach used by the school-based Comprehensive Career Education Model I (CCEM I) fostered by the Center for Vocational Education at the Ohio State University (see Figure IV). Using themes and educational outcomes as the basis for giving direction to curriculum development, the matrix

	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Career Awareness														Career Identity
Self Awareness														Self Identity
Appreciations, Attitudes														Self-social Fulfillment
Decision-making Skills														Career Decisions
Economic Awareness														Economic Understandings
Skill Awareness														Employment Skills
Employability Skills														Career Placement
Educational Awareness														Educational Identity
↑ Elements of Career Education														↑ Element Outcomes

FIGURE IV. CCE Matrix

identifies instructional units at each grade level for use in various subjects in the total curriculum. Instructional units developed in this model are utilized by classroom teachers in implementing career education.

Sixteen concepts basic to career development became the foundation for curricular integration and coordination in the Wisconsin model. A scope and sequence approach to planning (see Figure V) identifies grade levels at which the concepts are to be introduced, developed, and reinforced. Each subject area at the various grade levels develops and selects instructional materials and teaching strategies that will facilitate accomplishment of course objectives that support the stated concepts.



CAREER DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS

1. An understanding and acceptance of self is important throughout life.
2. Persons need to be recognized as having dignity and worth.
3. Occupations exist for a purpose.
4. There is a wide variety of careers which may be classified in several ways.
5. Work means different things to different people.
6. Education and work are interrelated.
7. Individuals differ in their interests, abilities, attitudes and values.
8. Occupational supply and demand has an impact on career planning.
9. Job specialization creates interdependency.
10. Environment and individual potential interact to influence career development.
11. Occupations and life styles are interrelated.
12. Individuals can learn to perform adequately in a variety of occupations.
13. Career development requires a continuous and sequential series of choices.
14. Various groups and institutions influence the nature and structure of work.
15. Individuals are responsible for their career planning.
16. Job characteristics and individuals must be flexible in a changing society.

FIGURE V. Career Development Scope and Sequence Model

Goals and objectives which permeate the overall structure of career planning are used by Michigan teachers who strive to implement the Michigan Model for Career Education. The Michigan model utilizes aspects of the CCEM I matrix and the Wisconisn scope and sequence chart and provides direction for infusing career education into all subjects within the K-12 curriculum. Curriculum planning sheets help teachers identify existing course objectives and related career education objectives; when that is accomplished, activities and resources needed in implementation are identified. Career education is infused when instructional units deal with career education objectives as part of the established, ongoing process of teaching each course.

BUSINESS EDUCATION AND ITS SPECIAL ROLE

Business education as a specialized curricular area is concerned primarily with the career clusters referred to as "Business and Office" and "Marketing and Distribution." Contributions to the development of self-concept, career awareness, career exploration, career planning and decision making, and career preparation can be seen in various aspects of the business education program. However, it is in the exploration of careers in business and in the subsequent preparation for those careers that business education plays a unique and important role.

Many business education courses traditionally have objectives that are the same as or similar to those espoused in career education. The exploration of careers in the two clusters of primary concern can be accommodated through separate courses that explore careers in business or through a process that infuses career exploration into specialized subject matter courses. The basic business course, still a popular one in most secondary schools, lends itself especially well to dealing with important aspects of career exploration.

That aspect of business education which prepares students with the knowledge and skills that make the individual employable continues to be an important part of the program. Student participation in job preparation courses of business education is enhanced when they enter those courses with a background that has permitted them to investigate and make decisions about jobs for which they are preparing.

The implementation of career education in business education, then, deals both with the exploratory aspects of careers as well as the preparation aspect. Courses in business education that prepare people for the labor market must be strengthened and made relevant in terms of current and anticipated employer expectations and demands. The training provided must be flexible enough to meet the needs of all students who wish to avail themselves of that training. Exploratory experiences, provided both within business education as well as throughout the entire curriculum, should bring into these courses students who are ready to settle down to some serious learning and development.

CAREER EDUCATION—SEPARATE COURSES OR INFUSION?

In spite of the fact that the business education curriculum has lent itself to both the exploration of and preparation for careers, one of the early-identified unmet needs in career education was providing a sufficient and adequate career exploration experience for students in business education occupations. Earlier attempts by business teachers to expose students to the various subjects typically taught in business education were viewed as being inadequate; students needed an understanding of occupations, duties, requirements, and opportunities as they related to the broad field of business careers.

One of the most significant attempts to meet this need in terms of the business and office occupational cluster was the "BOCEC" (Business and Office Career Education Cluster) which was developed under the direction of Harry Huffman at Colorado State University. Participants in this project developed, and field tested in selected schools, units of study which could be infused into the middle-school core subjects of English, math, and social studies. With this infused approach, all students in a school would be efficiently and adequately involved in the exploration of occupations in the business-office cluster. The project was successfully completed, and published materials are now available for use in all schools.[4]

Additional attempts to encourage and demonstrate the infusion of career exploration instruction into the curriculum included articles published in two professional magazines. The April 1975 issue of *Business Education Forum* sets out examples of how infusion could take place in shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, office practice, and basic business classes. A series of articles appearing in four issues of *Balance Sheet* (January–April, 1976) deal with objectives of career exploration, life-styles, distributive occupations, and an illustrative middle-school program.

Although the case for infusion is a strong one, the desire persists to offer a separate course dealing with the exploration of careers in business. During the development of the BOCEC materials, business teachers raised questions about their particular roles and requested similar materials for use in their own courses. A guide for business education teachers was then developed and published. Commercially developed materials by the two leading publishers in business education are available that can be either infused into various subjects or used as a basis for a separate course.

Arguments for the separate course are many and varied. The separate course gives visibility to the effort to provide career exploration experiences for students. A tendency in the infusion approach for teachers who are not committed to the exploration experience to minimize or eliminate instruction dealing with exploration is nullified. Proponents of the separate course also indicate that many middle-school students are ready to choose among the occupations found in the business and office cluster as evidenced by specific interests and questions based on experiences in earlier grades. It is felt by many that the self-concept of students is given sufficient attention in earlier grades to permit them to benefit from career information and a decision-making experience in the middle-school grades. It also is pointed out that students have become sufficiently knowledgeable through career awareness programs to have overcome the "red-tape" and "eye-shade" stereotypes of office work and have developed an ample horizon to look on business and office work as a worthwhile human endeavor for them. Instructional modules available also are broad enough to be attractive to future owners and managers of the American business enterprise, and students have reasonably well-developed reading and arithmetic skills to be able to cope with those concepts introduced in career exploration. In other words, students are seen as being ready to focus specific attention on the occupations and future career opportunities provided in the business and office cluster.

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[4] For information on the BO-CEC Project and available materials, contact the National Business Education Association, 1906 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

RESOURCES TO SUPPORT ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

The development of resource materials has been the objective of considerable federal and state funding. State and regional curriculum centers have been established, and most states are members of the National Curriculum Coordinating Committee. Local educational agencies can draw on state curriculum laboratories, and many have also assembled and developed their own career education guides.

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) at the Ohio State University provides leadership in stimulating the development of guides for planning, administering, developing, and evaluating the career education curricular program. Commercial publishers also continue to publish materials prepared by leaders in business education. The availability of such resources is an aid to implementation and will support leadership efforts of administrators.

MULTIPLE ROLES FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

Leadership provided by business education administrators should relate to the total program of career education at the elementary, middle grades/junior high school, secondary, and postsecondary levels. Contributions by business teachers can be important at each grade level.

The elementary school level. One elementary resource guide shows teachers how fusion can be carried out at the elementary school level.[5] For example, the guide contains excerpts from an elementary school textbook that shows how objectives in addition, subtraction, and problem solving can be related to career exploration. The resource guide explains how to demonstrate to students the knowledges needed by sales clerks and business people when they prepare sales slips and purchase orders. The elementary school teacher also is helped to set up simulated occupational environments in which children use mathematics to process and validate information in business. A variety of other related activities is described. Such guides can be used by business education administrators in assisting with elementary school curriculum development; business teachers can be used as "consultants" or "advisers" on such units.

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[5] *BO-CEC Elementary Resource Guide.* Reston, Va.: National Business Education Association, 1975.

The middle grade/junior high school level. As previously indicated, the middle-school grades lend themselves especially well to career exploration courses and activities. An additional source for leadership is the career-oriented guidance counselor. Burrus found in Colorado, as a result of a questionnaire study, that guidance counselors gave high ratings to the importance of achieving career goals.[6] In meeting the need to implement a career education program, administrators can charge these counselors with the overall promotion of the total program. Another implementation strategy is to use business teachers in key roles of leadership for unit and module development. Slaaten, in a related study, found that of 10 teacher groups, business educators rated the achievability of career education goals the highest.[7] Other teacher groups must be encouraged to participate, however, since many subject areas contribute to the preparation of careers in business. Teachers who initially lacked enthusiasm in the BOCEC project was later enthused about the responses of their students. Some teachers discovered that career information did not damage their programs and later even reflected on the fallacy of their original reactions which suggested that their subject's content might be contaminated or diluted.

The secondary and postsecondary levels. Teachers at this level also need examples of ways they can promote career development, since many of their students have embarked on initial training programs. The business education curriculum can be examined in light of social, educational, and economic forces affecting American society as the result of technological evolution. A study reflecting curriculum changes which can be helpful to administrators is reported in "The Leading Edges of Business Education Curriculum Development" in the 1977 National Business Education Yearbook.[8]

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[6] Burrus, Orville Wayne. *The Perceptions of Administrators and Counselors Toward Career Education in the Junior High School.* Doctor's Thesis. Fort Collins: Colorado State University, 1975. 200 pp.

[7] Slaaten, Doris Adele. *Junior High Teachers', Counselors', and Administrators' View of Career Education.* Doctor's Thesis. Fort Collins: Colorado State University, 1975. 171 pp.

[8] Huffman, Harry. "The Leading Edges of Business Education Curriculum Development." *Curriculum Development in Education for Business.* Fifteenth Yearbook, National Business Education Association. Reston, Va.: the Association, 1977. Chapter 14, pp. 229-48.

CHAPTER 7

Administrative and Supervisory Problems Peculiar to the Junior High School

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The wonderful years from 11 to 14 are years of discovery, maturation, and growing awareness for junior high/middle school students. Teachers and administrators must tread lightly so as not to stamp out the glowing enthusiasm of students during these years, yet a firm and consistent authority is essential. These are "idea years" for students—years when students are anxious to listen, to talk free of inhibitions, and to explore ideas of all kinds.

As noted by Piaget, the adolescent differs from the child above all in that he/she thinks beyond the present.[1] A junior high student's thinking has developed beyond the stage of "concrete" operations which Piaget assigns to age 7 to 11 years. The early adolescent begins to build systems or theories and to hypothesize. Thus, the junior high student can analyze his/her own thinking. Never again does a teacher find as many "teachable moments" or the willingness to examine any or all possibilities in a situation. But students at this level are extremely sensitive and teachers need special skill to deal with the highly explosive behaviors attendant in any classroom situation.

The junior high years are volatile years in terms of the adjustments which students must make. Drugs and crime take a dreadful toll. A recent issue of *Time* magazine in an article on "The Youth Crime Plague" (July 11, 1977) reports that more than half of all serious crimes in the United States are committed by youth aged 10 to 17. Since 1960, juvenile crime has risen twice as fast as that of adults. In Detroit, according to the article, youths commit so much crime that city officials were forced to impose a 10 p.m. curfew for anyone 16 or under. Such a report has a message for educators. Just as people in this age group make great strides toward the acquisition of useful knowledge, so they can also acquire antisocial behaviors.

THE OPPORTUNITIES

In modern cultures, where home and workplace are distinct, children must learn about the work world at school. (Alas, the apprentice system declined!) Business education is a new field of study for middle school students. The student aged 11 to 12 is only beginning to be aware of the business world. Grocery store shopping, buying clothes and records, going to the movies, and camping are the chief business contacts so far. His/her view is a vague, amorphous one and will continue to be so until he/she is of job-getting, money-earning age. The needs for these students are chiefly in the areas of job awareness, understanding of the economic system, responsibility development, attitude formation, and a review of the basic skills. Educators should avoid emphasizing the details of business operations too soon; rather, instruction should provide an interest-level orientation to business, not specifics, at this early age. Career opportunities in business should be explored, comparison shopping encouraged, and an orientation to the economics of the business world pursued.

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[1] Piaget, Jean. *Logic and Psychology*. New York: Basic Books, 1957.

CURRICULAR OFFERINGS

The pioneering efforts of business teacher educators and classroom teachers have already yielded the outlines of a curriculum to meet these current junior high school needs. The basic components of the "new" programs are courses (or modules) in the following areas: business and economic systems, career education, business mathematics, typewriting, and alternative education plans. A rationale will be offered for each subject area as well as examples and/or recommendations.

American business. (Other titles: "business-economic principles" or "business economics.") The rationale for this course stems from the work of 20 years cooperation between the National Business Education Association and the Joint Council on Economic Education. The *Report of the National Task Force on Economic Education* in 1961 named 42 concepts which all students should understand by the time of high school graduation.[2] Formal and informal research studies have shown that students can benefit from exposure to economic concepts as early as the elementary grades. The Kettering Report, published in 1973, proposed age 14 as a formal school leaving age, thus suggesting the need for early development of economic understandings.[3] Lawrence Senesh, a well-known economic educator, says that boys and girls are growing up with scarcely any idea of the structure and functioning of the American economic system; consequently, as adults they shy away from everything that deals with economic topics in newspapers and magazines.[4] This economic illiteracy, says Senesh, stems largely from the preconceptions many educators have concerning the learning abilities of children. The course outline presented below has been field tested in several schools in the midwest. Portions of the outline draw heavily from Senesh's earlier work in the 1963 National Business Education Yearbook.[5]

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[2] National Task Force on Economic Education. *Economic Education in the Schools: Report of the National Task Force on Economic Education.* New York: National Task Force on Economic Education, 1961.

[3] National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education. *The Reform of Secondary Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.

[4] Senesh, Lawrence. "The Contribution of Elementary and Middle Schools to Education for Business." *Foundations of Education for Business.* Thirteenth Yearbook. Reston, Va.: National Business Education Association, 1975.

Possible Course Titles:

AMERICAN BUSINESS   BUSINESS ECONOMICS   BUSINESS-ECONOMIC PRINCIPLES

I. OBJECTIVES FOR THE COURSE

The students should become aware that:

- A. Every society faces the conflict between unlimited wants and limited resources.
- B. Every society has to devise an economic system to determine what type of goods should be produced, how much of each, how these goods should be produced, and for whom. Economic systems vary as to who makes these decisions.
- C. In the United States, the biggest share of the responsibility to produce goods and services which consumers and government need rests with business. The activities of business are guided by market forces, business ethics, and by public policies.
- D. Business activities are motivated by the desire for profit.
- E. Business needs land, labor, capital, and management in order to produce goods and services.
- F. In a dynamic economy, business firms have to make continual adjustments because of invention, technology, and changing consumer tastes and incomes.
- G. Social sciences and statistics are providing businessmen with substantial bases for rational decision-making.
- H. Due to technology (for example, automation), production, distribution, and office procedures are continually changing. These changes have a radical impact on the composition of the labor force, requiring of it geographical and occupational mobility.
- I. Domestic and international political climates have an important bearing on the conduct of business.
- J. The economic system does not automatically assure competition and full employment. Both have to be encouraged through public policies.
- K. All economic systems undergo change.
- L. Business offers a wide and interesting variety of careers to both high school and college graduates.

II. CONTENT AREAS

- A. Economic Systems
  - (1) U.S.—A Mixed Economy with Consumer Orientation
    - (a) Business Regulator—The Market
      - 1. "Pure" competition
      - 2. Monopolies
      - 3. Oligopolies
      - 4. Monopolistic competitors
    - (b) Business Regulator—Ethics
    - (c) Business Regulator—Government
  - (2) The Soviet Union—A Planned Economy
  - (3) Other Systems: Japan, West Germany, etc.
- B. Dynamic Nature of American Business
  - (1) U.S. Production of 50 Percent of World's Manufactured Goods
    - (a) Agriculture
    - (b) Manufacturing
    - (c) Services industries
    - (d) Mining

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[5] Senesh, Lawrence. "Desired Outcomes in the Development of Economic Literacy at the Junior High Level." *New Perspectives in Education for Business.* First Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association Yearbook, 1963. Chapter 4.

        - (e) Construction
        - (f) Finance and insurance
        - (g) Small business
        - (h) Corporations
    - (2) GNP—Macroeconomic Analysis
    - (3) Microeconomic Analysis of Economic System
        - (a) Supply and demand analysis
        - (b) Marginal cost-marginal revenue
- C. Impact of a Dynamic Economy on Choice of Careers
    - (1) There will be a need for people to design and operate machines: engineers, technicians, skilled mechanics, scientists, and researchers. The need for the routined unskilled laborer will diminish.
    - (2) There will be increased need for people to coordinate the various technical specialists and control the business operations: managers, controllers, financial experts.
    - (3) There will be great need for professional and technical operations. Scientists, teachers, and engineers will be demanded by universities, government, and industry.
    - (4) There will also be need for semi-professionals with two to four years of training beyond high school to help apply scientific processes and techniques and serve as laboratory technicians, research assistants, and draftsmen.
    - (5) Executives with imagination and training will be needed to organize business and industry for optimum performance and apply the ideas of inventors to the manufacturing of new and better products.
    - (6) The skilled workers of the future will use automatic and electronic devices, maintain and repair delicate and complex instruments, and schedule flow of production.
    - (7) The demand for labor in the service and trade occupations will increase as the American people spend their increasing income and leisure for services. This is the area which may absorb, at low wages, some of the unskilled workers.
    - (8) The number of farm jobs will continue to decline because of increasing productivity.
    - (9) Affirmative action has opened opportunities for women and minority persons in fields traditionally considered male preserves.
- D. The Business and Industrial Community
    - (1) Financiers
    - (2) Corporate Managers
    - (3) Middle Management
    - (4) Factory and Office Employees
    - (5) Small Business
- E. Functions of Management
    - (1) How wages are determined and paid by a business
    - (2) Factors which determine the going wages in industry
    - (3) Factors affecting the national level of wages
    - (4) Labor unions and their role
    - (5) Financing fixed and working capital
    - (6) Production processes
    - (7) Marketing
    - (8) Price policies
    - (9) Advertising and sales
    - (10) Wholesale channels
    - (11) Retail channels
    - (12) Transportation and storage
    - (13) Financial statements
- F. American Business and the Rest of the World
    - (1) Difference in currencies
    - (2) Import controls and foreign competition

    - (3) Tariffs
    - (4) Foreign aid and investment in the Third World
    - (5) European common market
    - (6) OPEC
    - (7) Balance of payments
    - (8) Balance of trade
    - (9) Multinational corporations
- G. Taxation and Its Effects on Individuals, Business and Government
    - (1) Personal income taxes—state and federal
    - (2) Corporation income tax
    - (3) Excise taxes
    - (4) Real estate tax
    - (5) School tax
    - (6) Sales tax
    - (7) Personal property tax
    - (8) Payroll taxes
    - (9) Licenses and fees
    - (10) Other
    - (11) Evaluation of taxes
        - (a) Progressiveness
        - (b) Incidence
        - (c) Incentive to work and invest
- H. Social Security and Its Effects on Individuals, Business and Government
    - (1) History
    - (2) Purpose
    - (3) Operation
    - (4) Benefits
    - (5) Cost
    - (6) Current Problems
- I. The Banking and Monetary System
    - (1) Connection between amount of money and the level of spending
    - (2) Effects of changes in spending
    - (3) Effect of amount of money in circulation to level of prices
    - (4) Demand deposits—the most important kind of money
    - (5) Demand deposits result chiefly from lending and investing activities of banks
    - (6) Close tie between reserves and deposits means of control of banks by monetary authorities
    - (7) Federal reserve system
    - (8) Flow of gold
    - (9) Recession and inflation
- J. Government Fiscal and Monetary Policy

Many of the topics suggested in the above outline are already included in good "general business" courses, which serve as a worthy alternative course offering. Current textbooks in introduction to business provide a very good basic framework for the study of business; authors are gradually injecting a greater economic and career education emphasis. These books also serve as excellent resource books for the type of course outlined above. (Five-year-old texts will do more harm than good.) Naturally the individual teacher must reinterpret the above outline to meet the needs of a given community, and the administration and classroom teachers must decide what type of thrust is desirable in this first course. In any event, this course should help orient the junior high student to the business courses and programs available in the high school. The course should not take the form commonly called "business exploratory," which provides six weeks of instruction in shorthand, six weeks in typewriting, six weeks in accounting, and six weeks in salesmanship. The students are not mature enough to be able to absorb these complex concepts nor does such instruction serve an occupational need at this point.

Career education. The second course to be described is one in career education, if career concepts are not infused or integrated into the total curriculum. No attempt will be made to review the local, state, and national plans for career education or statements regarding its importance. Both Sidney Marland and his successor Kenneth Hoyt have informed the American public as to the objectives of career education. The weakness is in the implementation of the concept, especially at the junior and senior high school levels. A recent report of the U.S. General Accounting Office entitled "Career Education: Status and Needed Improvements," published in 1976 (USOE, NIE, HEW), indicates that considerably less success has been achieved at these levels than in the elementary schools in developing comprehensive career education programs.[6] A question that can be inferred from this report is whether researchers who propose certain programs actually do sufficient field testing to determine whether the programs do work. Sometimes a few enthusiastic teachers can make plans work, but when less motivated teachers try, the results are negative.

Desirable outcomes in career orientation may be accomplished by a module, a semester, or a full year course taught by a business teacher or by a team. Several schools are offering career education as a graded or ungraded course at the junior high level. The course described here was offered, with promising results, as a nine-week, ungraded elective in DeKalb, Illinois, 1972–74. One learning activity packet, prepared and taught by the writer, served as a general introduction to career planning. A second packet, prepared by E. Thomas Garman, was entitled "American Business: What is it? Why is it important?" This also was general-knowledge information, treating business in a broad sense with objectives asking the reasons American business is important to each individual and the characteristics of the production and marketing functions of business. The instructor chose a variety of class activities so that the students had the benefit of class discussion to help with the projects suggested in the packets. The outline for the first packet is reproduced at the end of the chapter.

The main caution for all career education teachers is the open acknowledgement that career education is not the same as vocational education. The Arizona career education motto, "Learning to Learn, Learning to Live, and Learning to Earn," is a good description of career education at the junior high school level. Vocational education is the "preparation" stage assigned to grades 11 and 12 and on into adulthood.

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[6] *Career Education: Status and Needed Improvement*. Report of the United States General Accounting Office, Office of Education and National Institute of Education, HEW, 1976.

Business mathematics. The major objective of this course is to review mathematical processes but also to provide suitable consumer and business applications for teenagers. Several excellent textbooks now on the market speak for themselves. Mathematical applications are learned for such topics as personal money records, wage income and tax problems, home expense records, and small business and farm expense problems. Every school administrator knows that most youngsters are deficient in their practical math understandings, and weakness is evident all the way through college. A business mathematics course can do wonders for the eighth or ninth grade student who is afraid of math, who cannot cope with algebra, and yet may have a strong career need for mathematical skills. Recent studies of the sex role impact on achievement indicate that girls "drop out" of mathematics in junior high school years; this calls for a special effort to encourage girls to develop their math potential. Direct emphasis on mathematical processes has a much greater impact than does a course such as "recordkeeping" which tends to emphasize unfamiliar and irrelevant detail.

Typewriting. All surveys of junior high business curriculum show that typewriting is the most popular course. In the latest such national survey by Welter and McIntosh, reported in the 1977 National Business Education Yearbook, the authors found that typewriting was offered at the junior high/middle school level in 31 of the 35 states responding.[7] (A basic business course and career education were the next two most often reported.) In 5 of the 31 states, typewriting was available only at the ninth grade level; in 5 states, the course was offered to sixth graders through ninth. The thrust of typewriting at this level should be to learn the keyboard and develop personal-use skill. Electric typewriters are easier than manual for young students to manipulate; less trouble is encountered with key jamming, carriage return, and other mechanical processes.

Care should be exercised in the selection of furniture. Desks should vary in height from 26 inches to 32 inches in that there is a great variance in the height of junior high students. Electric sockets should be planned with an individual plug for each desk for safety's sake; if possible, the sockets should be recessed in the floor. Each desk should have a copyholder; a demonstration stand should be provided the teacher.

If the planned class size is 30 students, 35 typewriters should be available to allow for machine repair lag time. Placing the typing room on the northeast side of the building to provide light over the left shoulder is advised. At least 40 foot candles (preferably 50 foot candles) of light should be provided in a classroom such as this where there is a heavy eye strain. So as to reduce the possibility of stealing, the typewriting room should be least accessible to exists.

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[7] Welter, Clyde W., and McIntosh, Harriet. "Developing Education for Business in the Junior High or Middle School." *Curriculum Development in Education for Business.* Fifteenth Yearbook. Reston, Va.: National Business Education Association, 1977.

Again there are excellent books available which "lesson-plan" the typewriting course. This is not to say that "anyone can teach typewriting." To teach well and have students develop the desired skill, the teacher should be well-trained, a good typist, and conversant with the psychological principles of skill building. As with any course, students can be turned off very easily if the instructor is incompetent. High school teachers complain bitterly, and rightly so, when junior high students enter beginning vocational typewriting classes with very poor typing techniques. Such students can never realize their full potential as typists. Schools do do strange things—such as the junior high school in Illinois that had an ex-army drill sergeant teaching 250 typewriting students each day each semester; he had never taken a course in typewriting, nor one in methods of teaching typewriting. Planned effort at in-service education by the other junior high and high school teachers in the district had no effect. Multiply 500 students a year by 20 years—no wonder his city cannot find enough competent typists!

Controversy has engulfed the question of the best time in the educational life of a child to encourage him/her to take typewriting. (The assumption is made that it is best for the child to take typewriting as part of a group rather than to learn independently at home.) The editor of the *NEA Journal*, in 1962, invited Lawrence Erickson and Ruth Woolschlager to prepare a joint "Opinions Differ" manuscript for the *NEA Journal.*[*] In this article, "Typewriting in the Elementary School?" Erickson pointed out that research shows that elementary students can learn to typewrite and that typing may improve their reading and writing skills. Woolschlager argued for extreme caution in introducing early typing courses. She noted that the Evanston, Illinois junior high school district had just discontinued the course on the grounds that it did not make efficient use of teacher and student time or school space. She continued by saying that the temptation to introduce an elementary or junior high program may be strong, and in some schools early typewriting instruction of permanent value to certain students may be possible. However, the dangers of spoiling a later competence are great unless all systems are in the "go" stage—the trained teacher, the full period daily, the perfect articulation with later work in typewriting, the personal possession of a machine by each student. In the absence of these requisites, her suggestion was to let the high school do the job. Perhaps students could better spend their time in a basic business or career education course.

Alternative education plans. Several large cities have programs through which "over age" junior high students can experience a different kind of setting in order to develop salable office skills before leaving formal schooling. Gerald Bober, supervisor of business education in the Chicago Public Schools, reports on an experiment with a core design for ninth grade students who are educationally deprived.[9] The clerical office procedures course attempts to help students who have academic difficulties and who are potential dropouts but who can be made employable. The course was designed to build basic skills in business communication, including reading, vocabulary, note-taking, telephone techniques and filing; to develop a necessary understanding of the various kinds of offices, office organization, and the work performed in offices; and to develop personality, teach good grooming, and develop an understanding of how to apply for and get a job. The course, offered five 2-hour periods each week, constitutes the core of the module of business instruction consisting of clerical office procedures, business mathematics, and typewriting (COP Program). If the student remains in school, he/she can enter formal classes once again, enter a cooperative vocational education program, or possibly enroll as a student in one of Chicago's career development centers.

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[*] Erickson, Lawrence, and Woolschlager, Ruth. "Typewriting in Elementary School?" *NEA Journal*, October 1962.

Another ongoing experiment in career-based experience education is meeting with success in Ohio County Schools, Wheeling, West Virginia. The ninth grade self-contained career and experience program is heterogeneous in nature including students of high and low income, high and low IQ, dropouts, handicapped, retarded, and minority and majority ethnic groups. Community placements with business, industry, and social service agencies serve as a springboard for the development of communication and mathematical skills plus other areas of needed improvement.

Another promising program for younger students is the WECEP work experience and career exploration program designed for students age 14 or 15 who are potential dropouts. The Bureau of Labor Standards, in cooperation with several state departments of education, has supported a plan by which a minimum of two classroom hours of instruction is devoted to job-related and employability skill instruction; a minimum of two classroom hours of instruction is devoted to regularly required subjects or electives which meet state standards for graduation. Each program is under the supervision of a teacher coordinator who places the students in appropriate work stations in business or industry.

Space does not permit additional examples of alternative education plans, but the three cited are indicative of many other programs that catch the imagination of students, parents, teachers, and administrators. This is truly an exciting area for further development in the junior high school.

The goals suggested in this chapter are in close accord with the objectives outlined in the 1977 National Assessment of Educational Progress Report on career and occupational development for students age 13.[10]

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[9] Bober, Gerald. "Business Education for Special People." *Project CABOT* (Chicago Area Better Office Training), Dr. Franklin H. Dye, Project Director, Chicago Area Business Office Teachers, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, 1971.

[10] National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). *Objectives for Career and Occupation Development Second Assessment.* Denver: National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1977.

SUPERVISORY PROBLEMS AND TECHNIQUES

Administrators who have never taken business courses themselves often find themselves at a loss to know how to assist a business teacher in planning and evaluating business courses. These are constantly changing subjects with the need to keep information current; the nation's economy and conditions existing in the business community are volatile, too. Suggestions follow in the areas of staffing, methods, and control.

Staffing. Just as social studies and English courses need to be presented differently at the junior high than at the high school level, so also do the business subjects. This is probably the major supervisory problem. Business teachers are typically prepared to teach primarily at the high school level and to provide students with work-entry skills. Such teachers, although they may choose to teach at the junior high level, will need assistance in learning how to work best with younger adolescents. For business teachers who accept a junior high position only until they can get a high school position, the problem is even more severe. Yet, a junior high administrator cannot afford to have a non-business trained teacher offer the business courses. Not only will the students' potential skills be severely limited, but if the student meets an unenthusiastic teacher who lacks subject matter confidence, he/she is likely to be turned off from taking business courses in the future. Administrators (and education professors) have been heard to say, "It's safer to hire a person who knows less about the subject matter because a trained business major makes the subjects too difficult for kids." The exact reverse is apt to be the case. A person who is competent in accounting/business math, economics, management, or typewriting can prescribe subject matter suited to the purpose to be served. The person who has minimal knowledge of a field is likely to stick closely to the textbook and whatever detail is easily identified and tested. Such teachers rarely know the importance of keeping current in regard to changes in business procedures or economic problems and therefore are nothing more than quacks. A global view, with specific examples, is necessary for junior high students. Specialists in the discipline are as necessary in business as anywhere else.

Methods. Many business teachers will need help in developing a varied range of teaching styles, including methods appropriate in non-skill areas. They will need to learn to stimulate curiosity, facilitate inquiry, and evaluate nonquantifiable learning. Most of all, they will need help with verbal interaction. Exposure to any of several interaction analysis systems can help teachers improve student talk patterns by asking better questions and reacting to student responses more effectively. Supervisors can also encourage teachers to try role playing, simulation, interviewing, the case method, values clarification, work in small groups, and other methods. The schematic on the following page suggests ways of relating method to the desired objective.

Student Objective Determines Teacher Method

STUDENT OBJECTIVE	←→	TEACHING METHOD
To gain factual data, become familiar with	→	LECTURE
To recall, check, verify, identify	→	RECITATION
To develop empathy, internalize a concept, modify values	→	ROLE PLAYING
To exchange opinions, share information, analyze	→	DISCUSSION
To examine, appreciate, or perceive through visual means	→	DEMONSTRATION OR DISPLAY
To recognize and understand processes or rates	→	SIMULATION
To gather data, analyze, synthesize, and communicate conclusions	→	REPORTS AND PROJECTS
Etc.		

As has been stated earlier, articulation in typewriting is the most difficult of all the courses under consideration. It is absolutely essential for the business teachers to meet with the high school teachers (and at times with the counselors) in the district and agree upon the time frame and standards to be used in a typewriting course. Business teachers should determine jointly certain emphases in each course at the various levels, so that there is a smooth transition for students. The junior high business teachers should, like the high school business staff, join local community groups so as to remain informed regarding local business procedures. Equally important, junior high business teachers must face up to their professional responsibilities by joining local, state and national business teacher organizations. A professional library within the school can be of significant help. Minimally the National Business Education Association Yearbooks, the *Business Education Forum, The Business Education World* and *The Balance Sheet* (house organs of Gregg Publishing Company and Southwestern Publishing Company, respectively—free), as well as state business education publications, should be available for the staff and administrators to peruse.

Student behavior. Because they will place students in unstructured learning situations, junior high business teachers must develop the skills and flexibility to deal with behavior problems. First, teachers must know what they want, what behavior is desired, and what is absolutely unacceptable. By communicating their objectives and standards clearly to students, teachers will achieve a great measure of cooperation. Gradually, the teacher should encourage and permit the development of self-discipline.

Even though the classroom out of control seems like the greatest obstacle to learning, in fact, the greatest barrier may be the too-strict teacher and the too-quiet classroom. People who are too easily ruffled by the natural, easy, sometimes noisy exuberance of youngsters who are involved in their work can crush the enthusiasm that promotes creativity. Teachers must function within the disciplinary climate established for the school. Ideally, administrators will run a tight ship in general but foster creative, individualized experimental approaches.

Supervisors can aid teachers by encouraging teacher self-appraisal. The desired outcome will be achieved more quickly if the climate is congenial to videotaping one or two class sessions. The teacher can view the tape in private, noting desirable and undesirable student and teacher behavior. A videotape may serve to communicate more effectively than can a supervisor in a postobservational conference.

Articulation. Along with the junior college, the junior high school has the greatest challenge in articulation. Programs before and after these two levels have formal educational structures and somewhat rigid expectations. Junior high and junior college are expected to be informal and exploratory; yet either level may turn out to be the terminal level for some students.

In conclusion the middle school/junior high administrator and the school board should ask themselves these questions:

1. Is the demand for business subjects great enough to warrant hiring one or more well-trained business teachers?
2. Are business teachers willing to adapt to the needs of young adolescents?
3. Can business courses be used as a vehicle to better prepare dropouts to cope with the current job market?
4. What equipment is minimal for a solid business education program at the middle school/junior high level?
5. What articulation problems in business education must be met with both elementary and secondary schools in the district?
6. What role should the administrator play in determining the best delivery?

For the students' sake, the response to the first three questions should be "yes," and the last three will be solved by cooperative planning.

Adapted from the cover of the *Instructor*, February, 1972.

March 1972

Dear Middle-School Students:

You have heard on television or read in the newspapers disturbing reports on jobs and people who can't get work—even though they have a high school or college education. Perhaps some of your family members have been laid off the job or do not have steady work because of seasonal changes.

All of this means that each individual needs to plan carefully and investigate before he chooses a career field. How do people get the jobs they have? Was it an accident or was it the result of serious thinking about their own talents in relation to the current employment needs?

In this unit of study of careers, you are asked to invest in yourself. This means that each of you is an important person whose talents and interests are worth developing. We will not settle definitely on any one possibility, but through talking with people, reading, and sharing information with the rest of the class everyone will gain a better perspective of the world of work.

We all want to have enough money to travel, to vacation, to have a nice home and furniture, to buy a new car, and to provide the other material needs for whatever size family we may have. Beyond this, however, there is the factor of personal satisfaction. And yes, our health must be considered before taking the highest-paid job which is offered. Above all, we want to be successful in our work.

LET'S BEGIN NOW IN FINDING OUT ALL WE CAN ABOUT CAREER POSSIBILITIES FOR YOU.

Sincerely,

Ruth B. Woolschlager, Professor
Northern Illinois University

INVESTING IN YOURSELF

GENERAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE STUDENT

You should be able to:

(1) engage in the process of self-evaluation through an assessment of interests and talents
(2) be alert to career fields in demand now and in the future
(3) evaluate the reasons during class discussions for unemployment and resultant cost of welfare
(4) examine the effect of advanced technology on unemployment
(5) suggest ways that men and women can "hedge" against loss of jobs
(6) prepare a brief report on one occupation, following the guide sheet distributed in class. This report is of an exploratory nature. You can change your mind many times! This may be a report prepared by one individual or by two or three of you working together.
(7) observe and demonstrate through role playing ways good human relations affect job success
(8) distinguish between good and poor work attitudes through viewing transparencies and class discussion
(9) list several requirements expected by business or by colleges for a specific career field with explanation of why there are such requirements
(10) develop a plan through a community survey which might help teenagers get jobs
(11) write an essay describing the way a person should explore various occupational fields before deciding on costly training, college, or permanent residence
(12) propose other reasons for studying careers at this stage of your education

GOOD MORNING!

Here's what you ought to do first:

Go to your library and ask a librarian for material concerning occupations which you want to investigate. Ask to use the OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK and try to find a specific occupation. At the end of that job description, you'll find a section called "Where to Go For More Information". Perhaps you could write to one or two of those places and mail the letters today. While you're in the library, select one book which describes one of the occupations in which you are interested. You may make notes here.

HELLO AGAIN!

A couple of days have passed, and here we are to step #2:

Talk to someone in an occupation of your choice, asking (a) about training for the job (b) how the person obtained the job (c) what the beginning salary was and what the salary may be in 10 years (d) opportunities for advancement (e) whether the person is happy and satisfied with his work. Write brief notes covering these points to be turned in to your instructor; some may be invited to give verbal reports.

If you have a tape recorder, how about recording the above interview and playing the recording in class?

HI, HOW ARE YOU TODAY? If you're feeling really sharp, read on: So far you have been investigating on your own outside of class. How about getting some ideas to present to the class? For example: could you and two or three others plan a role playing situation where a high school student does not get the job he has applied for because he reacts poorly in an interview situation?

or

Could you with the help of two or three others plan a role playing situation where a person loses his job because he can't get along with his boss or other employees?

We will take class time to plan these and perhaps you have some other ideas which will help zero in on the problem.

OR

if you want to do more library research, how about finding out which areas of work are overcrowded and those fields in which there is a shortage of workers? This can be either a verbal or written report, but plan to put data on board if you give it verbally.

OK, HERE WE ARE AGAIN,

Have you had an answer to your letters yet? If you have, bring them to class and let us know if they have helped in your investigation. We hope that by this time that we have one or two games which we can play in class. One is *Life Career Game* and we can learn patterns of life cycles of men and women determined by career decisions made at various points in their lives.

Only about two more days left for this unit. You should be developing your report of one occupation to turn in. Use the pink sheet as a guide. Consider duties of worker, requirements for entering career field, current demand for field, conditions of work, opportunities in future, advantages, disadvantages, etc.

THIS IS JACKPOT DAY. HERE IS YOUR $64 QUESTION:

1. A) Tom is in the 7th grade and his sister Ann is in 8th grade. Tom says that a person's success is "luck" or "accident." Ann says that it is the result of planning and careful investigation of various jobs or careers. Indicate whether you agree with Tom or Ann, or both.
   B) Show the procedures which a teenager should use before making a final decision as to vocation or career.

Now try one more

2. John Mighty is 16 and is failing in several school subjects. He has an opportunity to enlist in the Merchant Marine. Should he quit school? Why or why not?

and one more

3. Jane Booker is a senior in high school. She thinks she wants to be a nurse but she has never been in a hospital or talked with a practicing nurse. Should she major in nursing in college? Give reasons for your answer.

and only one more

4. Bill Bigfist has two part-time job offers. One job starts at $20 a week; the other one starts at $15 but if successful the person may advance to $25 and eventually to a full-time job. Both jobs are of equal interest to Bill. Which do you think Bill should take and why?

Finis

Bye for Now.

SEE YOU IN APRIL FOR AMERICAN BUSINESS, JUNIOR STYLE . . . .

The AMERICAN BUSINESS & CAREER [Junior Style]

ABC

Certificate

is awarded to

____

for actively participating and contributing to the Northern Illinois University-Huntley course

Dated this ____ day of ____________

____
Huntley Principal

____
NIU Professor

CHAPTER 8

Educational Leadership in the Junior High School

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If the proverbial space ship arrived from Mars to examine the American high school, the visitors from outer space would most likely describe the differences between these institutions in terms of the age of the students and the geographic locations of the buildings. They would further notice the similarities such as the general instructional program, the movement of students from class to class, and the design of the instructional plant itself. True, we in education recognize other differences, but these are in degree rather than substance. In fact, our visitors from Mars might wonder why we call some schools "junior" and others "senior." This latter observation would indeed be a difficult one for us to explain! Our attention should be addressed to the fact that both the institutions and the programs they purvey are absolutely interrelated.

Our concern in this chapter is to examine business education at certain specific grade and organizational levels toward the development of recommendations for change and/or improvement in the program and its governance. To accomplish our mission, we need to define rather precisely the term "junior high school." All definitions the author has been able to obtain contain two standard elements:

1. Grade span from the seventh through the ninth grade
2. Separately organized institution with its own faculty and facility.

States use various terms to describe institutions serving some or all of this grade span (i.e., middle school, intermediate school, junior-senior high school, upper elementary school, etc.). For the purposes of this chapter, we will deal with business education programs in institutions with a faculty serving students in any combination of grades seven through nine.

THE NEED

Volumes have been written concerning both the need, or lack of need, for business education in the junior high school, but a need certainly exists for business education in at least a portion of the grade or student age levels served by the junior high school. In the recent past, business education at these grade levels has been a program without a sound philosophical and/or rational basis for existence. To approach a consistent philosophy, one must begin with a reference to what it is that the program should accomplish. At least three outcome criteria for business education at the junior high school can be addressed:

1. Articulation—the courses or program must be coordinated with those at the senior high school, or
2. Usable skill—the course or program must yield for the student a skill or competence that has immediate application to his or her life, or
3. Guidance—the course or program must provide understandings that will assist the student to make further education and career decisions, or
4. Several or all of the above.

If the administrator or supervisor analyzes projected program development decisions against the criteria noted above, a philosophical basis has been established.

Let us now return to the need for business education in the junior high schools. The following statements of need are presented with the notation that they will perhaps stand a reasonable test of time; however, that is not to say they are timeless. The educational goals of our society change, and as they do, educational needs within various segments of the educational establishment will also change.

1. The increasing importance of "lifestyle" implications in making occupational and educational decisions indicates a need for programs that emphasize the widest possible exposure to occupational groups or clusters by all students.
2. The increased technological requirements in the work force place time constraints on vocational education programs in the schools, which indicates a need for the provision of prevocational orientation programs for students at an earlier age.
3. Increased attention to the identification of students with learning disabilities and the provision for educational programs for these students indicates a need for programmatic attention.

In summary, a need exists to address business education in the junior high school. It should be clear that there is not a need to provide vocational or employment skills toward specific occupations for students at this grade level; rather, the evidence indicates that the junior high school business education program can provide certain valuable prevocational and general education competencies for all students.

TRENDS

As previously noted, programs serving students in grades seven through twelve are interrelated; hence, educational trends that impact on those grade levels must also be interrelated. While there are hundreds of trends or directions discernable in education today, several have the possibility of far-reaching effects in business education.

Competency-based instruction is certainly not a new educational phenomenon; however, it has become one of the central themes in current practice. For many years, vocational programs have utilized curriculum and teaching/learning strategies based on the skills necessary to function in a craft or trade. A brick mason, for example, must be able to lay a minimum number of bricks in a day's work in certain defined patterns which are both level and plumb. The teacher of brick laying then develops the instructional program around the various patterns of brick to be laid, the methods of assuring that the work is level and plumb, and that each student is capable of laying the required number of bricks in a day. The foregoing example can be embellished and further refined to encompass a total program; however, it serves to illustrate a competency-based instructional program.

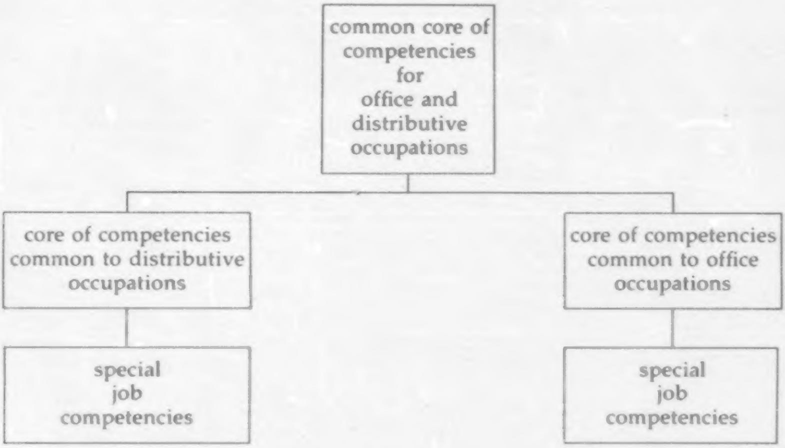
We can define competency-based instruction, then, as an instructional program approach which precisely identifies those specific skills which, when demonstrated by the student in a real setting, indicate mastery of the competency to be learned. The specific skills are expressed through one or more learner objectives, often called performance objectives. Presently, performance-based business education programs in the seventh through ninth grade are serving an increasing number of students, both in the general or basic business and vocational education components.

An equally important trend is the adoption of the "program approach" in business education. Historically, business education and other fields have defined their instruction in terms of "courses." We have become attuned to dealing with business education at all levels simply by stating the titles of courses offered by a school (typing I, bookkeeping, economics, office practice, etc.). While this has been a handy, readily understandable concept, it has become somewhat outmoded. The trend today is away from course titles, toward the defining of our offerings as "programs." Increasingly, we hear terms such as "common core programs," "stenographic program," "clerical program," or even "business I, II, III, or IV."

Why define business education by programs? Because business education is made up of a number of skills and competencies that must be viewed as a whole, rather than individual courses. Both research and rationality clearly indicate that the skills required of a stenographer are interrelated in that one skill is either built on a previous one or is a distinct but required job skill. The traditional course basis for business education instruction does not provide for the close coordination of training necessary today. To put it a different way—the course-based system is designed to facilitate the school, while the program-based system focuses primarily on the students.

The career education movement, which received its most recent impetus during the mid-sixties, has and will continue to have an impact on secondary education. Career education simply derives its goals from the truism that the student will ultimately become a productive member of society; hence, his or her education should focus on the ways in which we make our living. A number of distinct rationales and resulting philosophies have emerged through career education. The junior high school emerges as having a key role in career education in that students' should be provided with the opportunity to explore a number of occupational clusters during these grade levels in order to make some tentative decisions relative to their employment and educational future. No attempt is made to provide students with vocational training at this level, not are they asked to make finite decisions regarding a career.

No discussion of trends would be complete without mentioning the movement toward core instruction, particularly in vocational education programs. The principle of cores of common or related bodies of knowledge is certainly not new. It has reached a level of importance in vocational education program development and operation not previously found. Several core designs exist; however, they all seek to define those skills and competencies that are common to a number of occupations (either related or unrelated) and design programs which impact common skills in an organized means as the basis for specialization in further learning. The following illustrates the business educational vocational program currently used by one state at all educational levels.


common core of competencies for office and distributive occupations
core of competencies common to distributive occupations
core of competencies common to office occupations
special job competencies
special job competencies

A FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO THE ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BUSINESS EDUCATION

This section of the chapter deals with the specifics of administering and supervising the business education program at the junior high school level. Administration of educational programs has been variously defined, and a number of systems have been developed. They all have one common goal, which is to deploy personnel, dollars, and time (resources) in such a manner as to obtain desired learning outcomes. This short definition can be infinitely expanded to high levels of complexity and sophistication. Each individual who has the responsibility to administer or supervise all or part of a program will, over time, develop his own unique and, hopefully, effective processes to meet goals. It should be emphasized that the teacher, department chairperson, district business education supervisor, and school administrator all have a responsibility in the development, revision, evaluation, and administration of the business education program.

The numerous functions of educational leadership must all be initially and continuously addressed by business educators. Each function is both an integral part of the whole program and a separate entity in itself. Some functions may be the sole responsibility of specific personnel; however, none can be addressed out of context with the others. Some of the functions to be dealt with are: student needs, program planning, recruitment and promotion, program resources, guidance and counseling, instruction, professional development, and evaluation and accountability.

Student needs. It may be trite to say that the "school exists for students"; however, it is a simple truism often lost in the complexities of modern school operation. Perhaps a more cogent statement would be, "the business education program must be primarily, if not exclusively, designed to meet the unique needs of the students it serves." No program should be designed until a thorough analysis is made of the student population.

The following characteristics should be considered:

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND. What level of basic educational skills do the students possess? Are there unique deficiencies to be considered?

SCHOOL PROGRAM. What is the philosophy of the junior high school? Of the district? What school organizational and scheduling factors need to be considered? What services (counseling, health, etc.) are available for students in the school? Community?

CULTURAL/ETHNIC/LANGUAGE BACKGROUND. Does the school deal with students from several cultures? Does ethnicity suggest unique student needs? Are there predominant language difficulties among segments of the school population? Are unique teaching skills or teacher backgrounds necessary to deal with these concerns?

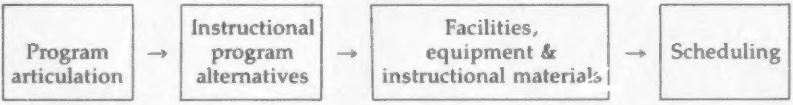
PARENTAL/SOCIETAL EXPECTATIONS. Does the socioeconomic setting of the school bring predominant or disparate expectations for student behavior and/or achievement? Are these realistic in terms of the students served?

DISADVANTAGEMENT. Does the school deal with students who are educationally disadvantaged? Is there a high mobility among the students (i.e., turnover of students)? Is attendance a problem? If a high dropout rate exists—why?

ARTICULATION. Upon completion of the junior high school program, where do students go for further education? Does the school feed one senior high school? Several? How many students go to each of several senior high schools? Do students attend public or private senior high schools?

COMMUNITY. Do students tend to remain in the community following secondary school graduation? What is the labor market projection for office and distributive occupations for the area? Is there a community or four-year college in the community? How many students attend? Complete?

Program planning. This function deals with four developmental activities essential to proper planning. They are sequential and should be approached in the order suggested.


Program articulation
Instructional program alternatives
Facilities, equipment & instructional materials
Scheduling

PROGRAM ARTICULATION. As previously noted, the junior high school business education program is part of a continuum and cannot be designed in isolation from the senior high school program. The junior high can play a significant and extremely important role in providing introductory components of both basic business and vocational education, but this must be done in concert with the senior high school business education staff from those schools to which it feeds students.

A continuing series of articulation meetings, workshops, and conferences must be formally set up. These can be initiated by personnel at either level and should include all business education teachers where appropriate. The designated department chairpersons or lead teachers should form the steering committee. The use of the business education advisory committee made up of representatives of the business community, is advisable as part of the articulation process. If students from the junior high will attend several senior high schools, the junior high staff must articulate with them all!

Articulation will involve several components of the program: general or basic business skills, and vocational office and distributive education skills. Some articulation concerns and recommendations are:

1. Establish clearly that the business education program is a continuum from grade seven through twelve and that program decisions or recommendations be based on that philosophy.
2. Where several senior highs with differing business education programs are involved, work toward the continuity concept.
3. Clearly define the skills and competencies in performance terms in all programs or courses so that it is understood what student achievement levels are expected.
4. Establish clear policies on student matriculation into senior high courses based on evidence of achievement in the junior high.
5. Adopt a certification process that indicates what students have achieved

and use this as the sole basis for entrance into advanced vocational programs.

6. Articulation problems often surround typewriting. Unless the goals of junior high typing are clearly developed in concert with the senior high schools, extreme difficulty is found in placing students at the senior high level.
7. Staffs at both levels should participate in professional development activities which assist in making them more effective teachers and/or supervisors. Some, if not all, of these activities are appropriate to both levels.
8. Recommendations for the adoption of instructional materials, equipment, and facilities utilization should be closely articulated to assure their most effective use.

Another type of articulation, sometimes called parallel articulation, involves closely coordinating the business education program with that of other parts of the school's instructional program. There are a number of areas that should be discussed with other teachers, counselors, and administrators.

The business education program can enhance the English, mathematics, social sciences, industrial arts, and other programs. Conversely, unless articulation within the school takes place, excessive duplication, and even conflicting instruction, can result. A continuing process should be designed with the involvement and concurrence of the school administration and other teachers toward interprogram articulation.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM ALTERNATIVES. What program should be offered in business education at the junior high school level? This question, unfortunately, is difficult to answer specifically. It would be easy to simply indicate several courses which seem universally appropriate; however, that approach is not realistic. Any decision on program must be based on the needs of the students to be served. A synthesis of needs data must be applied in any decision about course or program components.

Fortunately, we have some precedents in the form of commonly offered junior high school business education programs that can be examined with the view of establishing criteria for program development. Essentially this decision process is largely centered around defining alternative program possibilities that meet the previously described student needs.

A course called general business or basic business has been effectively taught at the ninth grade level for many years. It contains elements of economics, banking, insurance, career awareness, personal finance, arithmetic, etc. Its strength lies in the provision of basic skills essential to all persons in coping with the business world around us and in the variety of good instructional materials readily available. Its weaknesses lie in the age level at which it is offered and the potential duplication with later educational programs. Depending on the senior high programs and student needs, elements of this course can be effectively used at this level with the addition of career education or occupational counseling and guidance, consumer education, and business law units. This course can be offered on a semester or full-year basis with numerous open-entry, open-exit possibilities and has been taught as an interdisciplinary venture. With the recent advent of schools offering more short courses involving from 10 to 100 hours of instruction, possibilities exist for making this a flexible, individualized, and modular course tailored to meet the varying needs of students.

Of growing importance is the offering at the ninth grade level of a program that addresses the common core of skills requisite for both the distributive and office occupations. In the context of the entire junior and senior high business education program, it may well be appropriate to offer this core as a prerequisite for entering the senior high program. Clearly, close articulation and planning is necessary. The recommended competencies in the common core are:

adding machine
data processing
grooming
handwriting
instructions
working with people
written communication
job applications
making change
math computations
oral communications
references, manuals and directories
simple business records
sorting, checking
spelling
telephone

The foregoing may be modified to fit particular student and articulation needs. The entire core may be taught in 90 hours of instruction or placed in a flexible program or course structure in combination with other courses such as basic business or typewriting.

A great deal of excellent material has been written and is commonly available on typewriting instruction. It is not the purpose here to dwell on content or methods of typewriting except in the context of program decisions. Typewriting, beyond basic keyboarding competency, traditionally is directed to either personal skill or vocational applications, or some combination of both. Typewriting may well be a skill that all students exiting the twelfth grade should possess.

The key criteria for decisions relative to offering typewriting are: application of personal typewriting, articulation with further vocational business education, and resources availability. An analysis of student need data, coupled with both vertical and horizontal articulation information and such resource constraints as may be extant, will serve to assist in this decision.

If there is adequate expectation that students will be able to apply personal typing skill in their current and immediate future education, then training in typewriting may be appropriate. Consideration should be given to the availability of typewriters for student use at school, other than in the typewriting instruction program, as well as the possibility of students obtaining their own typewriters. The argument about electric or manual typing instruction still rages, but at the junior high level, the manual typewriter is adequate.

Articulation with the senior high school is critical, both before deciding on typewriting instruction and in the operation of the typing program. The senior high school must be able to adjust its program to provide for students who have received previous instruction. Further, the junior and senior high staffs must fully articulate the programs in order to place students properly. With the increasing production standards required by office occupation employers, the senior high should welcome the existence of a junior high typewriting program. Most current evidence indicates that typewriting instruction obtained by students below the ninth grade level is diminished in value unless the student continually applies and builds upon the skill attained in the classroom.

The subject of resources is an important decision criteria. Typewriting requires the acquisition of costly equipment, and the maintenance of this equipment is a continuing expense. The instructional space must be chosen to maximize program effectiveness and minimize noise.

FACILITIES, EQUIPMENT, AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS. Attention must be given to the proper instructional facilities, whether a single multiple-purpose classroom is used or several specialized rooms. Adequate lighting, ventilation, heating, and electrical connections are necessary.

A single classroom can serve more than one subject. If typewriting is offered, either the "L" shape desk or a desk with adequate writing space can be used, and typewriters would be the only unique equipment need to be considered. As previously noted, the manual typewriter is probably the most cost effective for junior high school use. The teacher or supervisor should consult with others about the frequency of repair of several brands of typewriters since nonfunctioning equipment is both counterproductive to instruction and costly. Adequate equipment security precautions should be taken.

Selection of instructional materials will include basic texts and supplementary materials. Depending on the nature of the course, the needs of students, and available resources, it is entirely possible to provide a course or program without a text for each student; rather, the instructor can obtain resource material or develop his own materials. A complete cost analysis is essential prior to making this decision.

SCHEDULING. The differences among schools with regard to the number of elective offerings, time of day, instructional time organization, enrollment, and needs of students vary widely; hence, only a few comments are appropriate here.

1. Avoid scheduling business courses during times of the day that contain extensive required courses.
2. Try to offer courses throughout the day, if possible.
3. If one-semester or short courses are contemplated, be sure that similar

elective offerings are available during the same time period so that students can move in and out of these courses.

4. Avoid "locking" students into a course. Should the student need or wish to move to another course, that opportunity should be made available insofar as possible.

Recruitment and promotion. An essential function in the business education program is that of recruiting students and promoting the program, yet many business education teachers spend very little effort in this regard. If a program has a desirable image in the minds of potential students, they will be more likely to enroll, even though they know little about it.

If we were to examine business education programs that are successful as measured by high student enrollments, enthusiasm, and competency, all would have an active, continuous promotion and recruitment program. True, the successful programs also contain many other factors, but they all recruit and promote.

"Promotion" refers to activities designed to develop a positive image about the program, while "recruitment" encompasses the means used to enroll students. The two are closely related. Promotion is directed to students, administration, teachers, counselors, and parents; while recruitment is primarily focused on the student and counselor. The business education supervisor should develop a complete plan that covers one or more school years and address both recruitment and promotion.

Promotional activities may consist of written flyers or other forms of advertising, as well as presentations to the constituencies served by the program (i.e., student, parent, public, school staff, etc.). Among the activities carried out under recruitment could be "business days," open house in the business department, cosponsored activities with the senior high business education department, speakers from the community, etc. Business education offers competencies of high value to all students. Program promotion creates a positive, desirable image, and recruitment brings students into the classes.

Program resources. "Resources" are important in proper program administration. Some of the resources are: "time," which encompasses the effective use of the time available within the student and school schedule, and "dollars," which includes all of those program components to which direct dollar costs are attached. The latter category includes teaching salaries, aides, department secretaries, supplies, equipment, instructional materials, and other related costs.

The development of a plan to utilize resources becomes a budget. Although there are many forms which the resource allocation process can take, all are premised on either the "line item budget" or the "program budget." Briefly, the "line item budget" process simply calls for decisions to be made based on historical or other data as to what accounts dollars will be allocated. Line item budgeting decisions generally are not closely related to the program they serve. "Program budgeting" is based on the notion that resources should be tied directly to programs at the lowest possible administrative or program level. Program budgeting requires careful delineation of what is to be accomplished and in what time frame. Budget decisions are then based on a cost-benefit analysis (i.e., the cost of achieving a particular benefit). The following form may be used by the business education teacher or supervisor to both graphically and fiscally display the cost of a program against the potential enrollment.

Course/program	Total enrollment	No. class sections	Classrooms used	Dollar cost								
				Instructor	Aides/clerks	Instr. mtls.	Supplies	Equipment	Misc.	Total	Per student	Per section

This or a similar form is a particularly useful tool, both for program resource allocation decisions as well as discussion with the school or district administration. The supervisor must be prepared to make decisions at critical points in the process of both development and operation of the business education program.

Guidance and counseling. A high quality counseling and guidance system is essential as an ancillary service to any instructional program. In addition, effective counseling and guidance is a responsibility of both counseling personnel and classroom teachers.

Staff in a well-supervised business education program work closely with school counselors to assure that they are aware of the quality and desirability of business education and use effective methods of placing students into business education classes. All too frequently the business education teacher places unnecessary restrictions on student enrollment. In the junior high business program, there should be no prerequisites for enrollment! Business education has a program of value to every student, and a relationship with counselors based on that premise is essential.

The business education teachers and/or supervisor should carefully develop a document that indicates the content of each course or class, its value to students in terms of current and projected use, and the instructional methods used, including provision for educationally disadvantaged and handicapped students. Meetings with the counseling staff should be held at least bimonthly to discuss the business program. Counselors can point out what is needed to fulfill their goals and provide valuable input and recommendations concerning business offerings.

Business education teachers must also counsel their students, particularly about career information and availability of further programs at higher educational levels. The involvement of the senior high school staff is valuable in guiding students, particularly when coupled with the use of business persons from the community.

Instruction. Adequate, but nonrestrictive, supervision of instruction is necessary to insure continual quality. Recognition, support, and assistance in this context include: classroom instructional organization, methods of instruction, instructional materials, classroom supplies management, class scheduling, instructional records, and teacher evaluation.

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION. To assure viable instruction, the organization of the course or program must be carefully coordinated with the individual teachers. Some considerations are: teachers must understand the curriculum to be taught and the interrelationship of their classes to others, both business education and nonbusiness; the adequacy of the physical space used; repair of furniture and equipment; and scheduling each class in the most appropriate daily time frame.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION. Learning takes place through the instructional methods used, so they must be modern, varied, flexible, and particularly appropriate to the needs of students taught. The supervisor should periodically review the methods used by teachers to assist them in expanding their repertoire. Instructional methods are, in a sense, similar to a mechanic's tool box—the appropriate tool must be used to accomplish the desired result. In the classroom, there is rarely a single method appropriate for all students; and it is the function of the supervisor to assure that each teacher has the proper "tools" of instruction and that they are competent in using them.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS. Adequate instruction requires adequate instructional materials, including textbooks, consumable workbooks, resource texts, and other books and instructional units and packages of all kinds. Good instructional management includes obtaining materials in sufficient quantity and appropriate for the students enrolled. Material acquisition decisions should be made by involving the teachers who will use them. Some kinds of materials—individualized performance-based units, for example—often require special methods for effective instruction.

CLASSROOM SUPPLIES MANAGEMENT. Supplies for classroom use include paper of various kinds, typewriter ribbons, correction fluid or erasers, notebooks, special supplies for graphic displays, and numerous miscellaneous items. Purchasing practices vary widely from school to school. The companies that sell supplies to schools are engaged in a very competitive market, and often the supervisor can obtain supplies at a considerable saving by obtaining bids from many suppliers.

Supplies should be inventoried and a plan developed to issue them to teachers on an organized basis, keeping records on teacher expenditure of supplies. Some schools utilize a budget concept that allocates supply money to teachers on either a unit cost per student or course basis. The teacher then has his/her own budget and "buys" supplies as needed. This concept is in keeping with "program" budgeting.

CLASS SCHEDULING. The scheduling of classes within the daily school program and the assignment of teachers to classes is an administrative function, often shared by the supervisor or department chairperson. Scheduling classes throughout the day to maximize the enrollment of students in appropriate courses should be a primary concern. Conflicts between popular electives should be avoided. If required courses are generally available only during certain parts of the day, business electives can be scheduled at other times.

Effective teacher assignment is based on the interest of the teacher and his/her competency to manage learning in specific classes. It is essential to involve teachers in this decision process.

INSTRUCTIONAL RECORDS. Reliance on the school office as the sole maintainer of student and operational records is generally not effective in the orderly maintenance of the business department. Department records should be centrally maintained and contain information about students enrolled in business subjects. They should include: current address, course(s) taken, test or other achievement data, senior high attended at completion of junior high, anecdotal records, record of certificates awarded, and occupational interests.

TEACHER EVALUATION. This function has as its singular goal the improvement of instruction. Teacher evaluation for punitive purposes is a violation of this intent. Some suggestions concerning the process of teacher evaluation are:

1. Involve teachers in the intent, design, and instrumentation of instructor evaluation.
2. Clearly communicate the intent, process, and follow-up procedure.
3. Select components of the system carefully; avoid highly judgmental areas.
4. Concentrate solely on improving instruction.
5. Following the classroom observation process, meet with teacher and discuss tentative recommendations.
6. The teacher should develop, in conjunction with the evaluator, a personal development plan.
7. Establish a review and appeal procedure and thoroughly acquaint staff in its use.
8. A number of teacher evaluation systems are available for review and

adoption. Don't "rediscover the wheel." Carefully examine systems in current use prior to developing or modifying your own.

Professional development. Nothing today remains static, particularly in education. New directions in programs, curriculum, learning, materials, and methods, to name but a few, are constantly being developed or refined. It is incumbent on each business education teacher to maintain currency in his field.

In the ideal sense, teachers will continually be involved in professional development; however, the supervisor must assist the staff in obtaining appropriate further training. The teacher evaluation process is an ideal way to assist teachers in making professional development decisions. The key to success is developing with each teacher an individualized plan for in-service training, then providing the resources (dollars and time) for them to carry it out. Part of the budget should be allocated to in-service teacher education and pay, either in full or in part, for the cost of travel, per diem allowance for food and lodging, and materials for professional development activities based on a school or district plan and policy. In-service training has many forms, such as: enrollment in college courses, attendance at conferences and workshops, professional association activities, community visitations, department or district business education teacher seminars, and use of outside program consultants.

Evaluation and accountability. It is axiomatic today that business educators are accountable to a number of constituencies or publics; however, students are the main group to whom the business educator is accountable. Additional groups include administration, parents, school boards, legislators, and the community. It is important to understand the needs and expectations of each group. Although commonalities obviously exist, there is often a degree of difference in priority. For example, school boards and legislators may place fiscal accountability higher on their list than students, parents, and the community. As a supervisor, it is important that these constituency needs be clearly understood and a plan developed to account for business education in the terms desired. This is not to suggest that the business educator is in any way engaging in fraud but, rather, collects, synthesizes, and presents information and data in a way that is understandable to the clients.

Evaluation is an essential part of this process and is an absolute necessity in any business education program. Two types of evaluation are necessary: program evaluation and learner evaluation.

Program evaluation deals with those tangible elements that concern the adequacy of the program itself in meeting the objectives set out for each course and class in the total program. Learner evaluation is concerned with the progress of each student in the total business education program. Both are essential. The previous section on instructional records gives some of the kinds of records essential for accountability.

Additional information is derived from the philosophical goals of the program, community and student needs, teacher evaluation, and allocation of resources.

This vast data base provides the supervisor with a systematic way to assess the health of the program. It answers essentially these questions: Are we accomplishing the goals for which the program was designed? Is the program cost effective? Are the phenomena from which program goals were established changing? Are projected enrollment figures accurate? Are students achieving? It is incumbent on the supervisor to develop the system for deriving evaluation and accountability reports.

CHAPTER 9

The Changing Nature of Business Education in the Secondary Schools

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The nature of business education in our secondary schools must always be associated with the changing nature of business educators. Assessment of the impact of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 upon business education has varied among business educators. Some business educators have been very critical, expressing the feeling that the Act has only allowed for the acquisition of expensive equipment. Others have considered the Act a criticism of past efforts of vocational business education. Fortunately, these beliefs belong to the minority. Most business educators now reaffirm their belief that business and office education is of one family and that vocational legislation can help to strengthen its dual purpose.

The terminology of business and office education also has different meanings to different business educators. To those who strive for unity, business education refers to the comprehensive offerings, and office education to the vocational capstone. It is this joint association of comprehensive and vocational office education that will bring forth the ultimate for the student who is seeking immediate, direct, and gainful employment upon graduation. It is this association that will also bring forth a united department, a statewide program of action, and professional business organizations working together.

COURSE VS. PROGRAM PHILOSOPHY

The independent teacher and the independent course offering is becoming a part of history. However, schools still offer a massive but not truly associated array of business courses. Some business courses still have only a distant relationship to each other because a sequential learning pattern, from one course to another, has not been developed. In some schools, *course* philosophy, rather than an overall business and office education *program* philosophy, is still in existence. Where a sequential learning pattern does exist, it is basically in the skill courses.

The vocational office educator is faced with a difficult task when attempting to prepare a student occupationally when there is only a mixed array of business courses. To accomplish the ultimate for the student, the professional business educator must recognize the need for an underlying principle of unity and cohesiveness among the components of the entire business department. This unity applies to the general educational, prevocational, and vocational components. Many educators realize that whatever is accomplished within a vocational capstone offering is almost totally dependent upon the comprehensive business courses. But the problem of course offerings rather than programs is still apparent, and sequential program patterns have in many instances not been created. Where there is a total departmental movement, however, programs are in existence for clerical, secretarial, accounting, data processing, and basic business. With the creation of the program philosophy, the vocational capstone offerings become the final stage of a four-year endeavor.

The structure of a business program must involve many components. It must be designed for the attainment of employability and satisfactory job performance on the part of a student in a family of business and office occupations. Learning experiences are provided through general education subjects, economic principles, and specialized technical occupational subjects. With this new structure, the minimum standards of the business department must be at least equal to and preferably superior to the competencies and performance standards considered acceptable by industry in the specific occupation or family of occupations.

A TOTAL DEPARTMENT

The creation of four-year program sequences requires much more than mere course listings arranged according to a specified grade level. The old twelfth grade capstone of typewriting, office practice, and shorthand became offerings of the eleventh grade in many states. It was soon apparent that the vocational phase would now provide the setting for the application of previously developed skills and knowledges in an actual or simulated office environment. It was also time for business educators to bring forth carefully formulated and tested departmental objectives to which all business courses must respond. Once departmental objectives were identified, a sequence of learning from one course to another could be developed. The independent teacher and the individual course was becoming a part of the past.

Ralph Mason, chairman of the Business and Distributive Education Department, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, points out that school administrators and local education agencies today are being pressed to build accountability into the educational system through competency- and performance-based instructional planning. It is increasingly apparent that the way to build accountability into a business curriculum is to develop departmental objectives, course outlines, unit plans, and daily lesson plans around performance goals (competencies) expressed in behavioral terms.

It is a comparatively easy task to develop competency-based programs for typewriting, shorthand, and machines operated because of readily measurable criteria and standards. But such performance criteria and standards are not easy to establish for basic business courses and, as a consequence, are often developed through the efforts of the teacher responsible for a particular offering. The problem becomes more complex when there are several teachers of the same subject. Seldom, if ever, do these teachers coordinate basic course outlines that are to be used or provide a common list of expected student outcomes upon completion of the particular course. With a departmental approach, as expressed by Dr. Mason, these teachers must review individual daily lesson plans and, wherever possible, establish terminal behavior in measurable terms. Minimum performance outcomes should be expected of all students, and for some students additional behaviors can be developed through individualized instruction geared to the student's ability and desire.

With the "total departmental movement" a reality, more and more schools and business departments have become involved in vocational office education. Equipment that was once believed to be essential only for initiating vocational preparation is now being utilized for vocational office education as well as for the benefit of the entire student body.

TIME VS. LEARNING

Business educators are currently faced with another dilemma. The four-year program permits a student considerable flexibility without being "locked-in" during the first two or three years of instruction. However, the student does not acquire the full benefit and final application of previously developed skills and knowledges until the senior year. Early release and midterm graduation, furthermore, greatly deplete the number of available seniors for the capstone offering.

With this fixed-time pattern, the student is scheduled into a learning sequence geared to a specified number of semesters or years before the full benefit of the program can be acquired. The ability level of the student or length of time the student can devote to the program is frequently not considered. Each student is invariably enrolled in the beginning course, even if only one semester remains prior to his or her expected completion of secondary school. Training for the work of receptionist, file clerk, duplicating machine operator, keypunch operator, or other minimal skill jobs, can only be gained by enrolling for several semesters of instruction.

To overcome this shortcoming, "mini" content blocks of three to nine weeks in length are now being developed. As a result, students are able to select learning activities that comprise only a nine-week period or perhaps one semester. Once a student demonstrates proficiency within a segment, credit can be given, with the transcript so denoting the "mini" nine-week achievement. Furthermore, students are being prepared for specific employment positions in three- to nine-week "mini" segments.

Can individualized instructional programs now be developed for students that were once developed for the business department? What prevents the initiation of self-paced learning centers for typewriting rather than continuing this instruction as a formal four-semester offering? Can some students be expected to accomplish in two semesters what others accomplish in three? For once again, many students are not able to devote the time prescribed by an entire instructional program as now established. A school might, for example, outline four competency levels for typewriting, and as a student is able to demonstrate proficiency within the learning center, he or she may be permitted to advance to the next instructional level. The concept of learning centers is also being applied experimentally to accounting and shorthand. Through self-pacing and self-instruction many students are able to accelerate or extend their learning into a content area that is of particular interest.

TASK- AND PERFORMANCE-BASED INSTRUCTION

Educators are now developing occupational inventories so that performance-based vocational education and student-centered planning and instruction can become a reality. These occupational inventories identify the specific duties and tasks performed in business. The duties and tasks are also listed by priority as determined by reviewing committees of business representatives. Once a student is able to complete an inventory list, the teacher is able to pinpoint precisely what that student is capable of doing, and employers are able to relate to this accomplishment.

Pretesting is especially helpful in determining the inventory list that a particular student will use. Inventories will vary for jobs that are complex to ones that are relatively simple, for example, for secretary and bookkeeper to typist, file clerk, and receptionist. Through the task- and performance-based instructional system, training packets are also being developed to serve those students who are limited by time or ability. Time used by a student to master a particular inventory list is of little significance. Success is measured by the task list he or she has been able to complete.

As one analyzes task- and performance-based instruction, it becomes readily apparent that students are involved with precise learning activities rather than broad course offerings that deal with an array of content and "things nice to know." It is such inventory task lists that have led to the full endorsement of open-entry/open-exit curriculum design, mini instructional packets, and nine-week courses. Business educators can now prepare a student who has had little or no previous training in three to nine weeks for many business positions.

BASIC CONTENT AND THE EVALUATION PROCESS

One no longer screens students out of a course but, rather, screens students in. Pretesting is used to determine the knowledges and skills that the student has already acquired. Teachers now start the instructional process only after pretesting has been finalized. Students can then be spared the boredom of content that has little meaning or value. Furthermore, the student is provided the opportunity to expand his/her knowledge and capabilities by progressing without hindrance to the next sequential learning activity. Because of pretesting and self-pacing, some students are given the opportunity to explore additional content of a more technical nature or beyond that normally prescribed as content of a course.

Teachers are also becoming increasingly conscious of the number of students who are unable to satisfy a particular test question or performance standard. For many years, the military services have used the technique of using the percent of students who miss specific test items as a means for determining the content to be presented again. If a department staff subscribes to the philosophy that a sequence of learning should exist from one course to another, then each student must acquire certain basic competencies before he or she can progress to the next level. The reteaching of certain subject matter does not require all students to repeat content in which they have already demonstrated proficiency. Today's classrooms are divided into small learning alcoves where varying levels of content are being learned. This mode is in contrast to the instructional setting geared to the average learner.

Industry is still greatly concerned with the system of recording and denoting student accomplishments in most schools. It is generally agreed that grades do not denote what a student is truly capable of doing. Does an *A* in an intensive laboratory, for example, indicate that the student is highly proficient? Would it be better if grades were given on the basis of tasks accomplished? For example, under the overall classification on a grade card for office procedures, numerous grades would then be listed: *A* for filing, *B* for office duplication, *A* for the operation of an accounting machine, and *D* for the utilization of word processing equipment or application of theory. Today's business education does not lend itself to tests of 100 questions, but rather that a student be placed in 100 situations in which he/she must demonstrate certain competencies according to specific performance standards.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PEOPLE

The changing nature of our secondary schools requires that teachers become more involved in the *total* development of students. Job interview techniques, good telephone procedures, and proper business attire have always been a part of the instructional program. "Play practice" or role-playing techniques are generally helpful but highly inadequate for the job preparation needed today. Open discussion of individual development is now a part of those courses basically denoted as the skills. Perhaps it would be better to rename the typewriting course "People and Typewriting." All machine instruction might then be eliminated one day a week for open discussion of people working with people, getting along with people, what is expected of an employee, what is expected of other employees. . . .

Should not all students be provided time for field-related experiences where they can witness paper flow within an organization and the interrelationships of the people who are involved? When instruction deals with accounting and taxation, is it not desirable that students be involved with one or more small business agencies where they can observe "transaction" flow as well as acquire some understanding of the operations of the small business? Such opportunities for the student develop more complete understanding and generate increased interest in the subject matter under study.

TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS

Are we still following the practice of making the new teacher responsible for basic business; and is basic business the first association of many students with the business department? Assuming that basic business has been included in the sequential learning pattern, this course needs the background of the most proficient and well-rounded teacher in the business department.

Teachers should no longer be allowed to *select* courses on the basis of seniority. Seniority alone is weak justification for making class assignments. The formal educational background and occupational experience of each teacher should be part of the teacher's employment record. Although a course may be assigned to a particular teacher, when a specialized topic is being treated, the teacher with the greatest "expertise" should be used for that segment. Teachers today must accept the fact that the preparation needed by students for this more and more demanding world cannot be gained from generalizations. It must be developed through the combined efforts of an entire staff. In today's structure, teachers should be made responsible for those segments of instruction which will contribute most to the total departmental effort.

INVOLVEMENT OF INDUSTRY

It is generally agreed that business educators need occupational experience if they are to accomplish the mission at hand. Because the majority of business education students seek office employment upon graduation, industry representatives must be utilized in the development of the educational and occupational preparatory process. In order that business educators may keep abreast of technological changes in the world of work and provide training of a specialized nature, representatives of industry must be made a part of the instructional team and have opportunities for continuous input into preparation of vocational students.

A department must provide much more than entry-level job preparation for those students enrolled in a four-year secondary school program. Entry-level preparation should be considered the minimum, not the maximum, responsibility of a department. Furthermore, the student should be the beneficiary of a working relationship that has been established between business educators and representatives of the business community.

Can it not be said that because of industry's involvement, our business and office education programs are today more directly related to employment? Both facilities and office machines within business departments are increasingly comparable to those found in industry. Furthermore, instruction duplicates, as nearly as possible, actual working conditions so as to provide the most effective learning environment.

THE DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN

Problems still exist in many schools where the job of department chairman is considered an honorary or rotation-type position. If a true departmental atmosphere is to exist, an individual must definitely be assigned the responsibility for coordination of the business department. Such an individual needs sufficient time and authority to develop the staff into a unified educational team.

The high school department chairman should also be the chairman or overseer of instruction provided in the junior high or middle school. Many times the middle or junior high school is given the responsibility for basic business, personal typewriting, and career exploration. The instructional program in these schools can be in conflict with or very supportive of the high school program.

VOCATIONAL OFFICE EDUCATION

In the beginning, and sometimes still today, the block-time program brought together a combination of existing courses into a block of time. This brought forth criticism by business educators because the "block" was felt to be in conflict with or a replacement of existing courses.

The block did cut across old subject lines and incorporate activities based on paper flow, but because some students did not have the necessary prerequisite courses, many block programs incorporated basic instruction in typewriting, office machines operation, and shorthand. Because it is believed that students should be prepared for more than entry-level positions, most states are again reviewing prerequisite courses for program entry.

In the initial development of the cooperative program, some business educators considered it to be a work-type learning environment which only required that a teacher-coordinator acquire a "job" for each student in the program. Today, business educators emphasize the *learning* rather than the *earning* element of the cooperative program.

It is interesting to compare what can be accomplished in a block-time with accomplishment in a cooperative program. Only a few states suggest that an in-school block-time program is equal to a cooperative work-experience program. Furthermore, seldom was such a comparison made in the beginning stages because the programs were created to serve different school communities. The in-school program, for example, was conceived primarily for those schools that did not have a large employment market; while the cooperative program was recommended for large school/business communities. Shortly after its inception, it was discovered that many students had prior obligations and could not readily be placed in a cooperative program. It was also apparent that certain business establishments did not provide an ideal training experience or environment.

Most educators agree that an in-school block program makes it possible to control the learning environment and provide more varied training settings than the typical cooperative program. One will now find situations where the more proficient student is enrolled in the in-school program and the "task oriented" student in the cooperative program. The experiences business can provide may be the principal variable. The ideal practice now makes it possible for the in-school and cooperative program coordinators to function as a team, interviewing each student in order to determine which program will best serve his or her needs.

The related period of a cooperative program must provide the opportunity for discussion of problems that develop while the student is at the training station, provide additional career information, and prepare for employment opportunities beyond the job in which the student is placed. The business organizations which participate in the cooperative program must, therefore, be well informed as to the entire educational and occupational process if the cooperative program is to be successful. An in-school program, on the other hand, must duplicate as nearly as possible an actual functioning office in layout, equipment, materials, standards, and job pressures if it is to be occupationally sound. Many in-school programs now utilize field-related occupational experiences for approximately two to four weeks for each student. Students also have the opportunity for direct involvement through a visitation to a selected business for each phase of instruction provided.

Numerous schools have initiated cooperative and in-school programs which operate in conjunction with one another. If a student reaches a plateau in the in-school program, and if industry can stimulate advancement, the student is removed from the in-school program and placed in the cooperative experience. Conversely, should a cooperative student fully acquire the learning experiences and competencies available within a business establishment, he or she can be transferred from the cooperative setting back into the in-school program for preparation in another occupational cluster.

Much can be said for a program that can control learning at all times. Without a doubt, an in-school program must have a well organized and very effective advisory committee to approach the learning opportunities of a cooperative program. The instructional equipment and learning experiences must be consistent with business accepted by business as being representative of the tools and activities of a functioning office. The ideal in-school program consists of functional stations: receptionist, office manager, supply clerk, duplication clerk, and secretary to the manager; company paper flow stations of approximately four or five; and individual stations involving insurance, banking, real estate, medical or legal stenography, manufacturing, and governmental applications. Furthermore, to assure training for immediate employment, the stations and materials must be representative of those businesses which afford employment to graduates.

STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

Student organizations play a vital role in student development. Competition and a desire to associate with other students of the same interest has added a new dimension to student organizations. Through community-based projects and competitive events, students have an opportunity to become involved in activities that directly advance their educational and occupational abilities. Local activities provide the principal ingredients for a successful program, but much broader experiences are possible when a chapter is affiliated with a state and national organization.

Once students become aware of the relationship between a youth organization and their occupational preparation, involvement becomes increasingly meaningful. Through the activities of a student organization, teachers are able to see their students apply all of the elements of the learning environment through which they have progressed. It is also an opportunity for students to develop positive interpersonal relationships which are a necessary ingredient for any successful employee.

A COORDINATOR OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

The acquisition of a job by a graduate of the business education program has too many times been cited as evidence of a successful business department or as justification for continuing some of its activities. The level of employment, the completeness of the preparation, the potential for advancement once on the job, and the likelihood of employment in the area for which the student was trained should be of concern to the professional business educator.

A teacher today serves more as a coordinator of the learning process than a purveyor of information. A vocational teacher, however, must be knowledgeable of the "real" world of work and able to develop tangible evidence of occupational proficiency. This program planner and coordinator must also be a career and occupational adviser to each and every student who enrolls in his/her classes. Furthermore, educators must not limit their objective to making sure that graduates become contributing members of society. Graduates must be able to adjust to societal change and aspire to improve the social order in which they will function.

SUMMARY

The success of a business department is determined by the unity and harmony that encompass both the general education and vocational offerings. Each teacher must become a contributor to the educational process that has been developed according to departmental objectives, a sequence of learning, and precise daily plans.

The student who spends a prescribed amount of time in a carefully designed occupational program should be ready for employment upon graduation. Some students, however, can only pursue business education for a year or part of a year. Schools should continue to provide the more extended programs for occupational preparation, but alternatives must also be available. Mini occupational training packets extending over a period of three to nine weeks are needed along with open-entry/open-exit programs. The entire instructional pattern must be geared to industry's needs through task inventories and a performance-based instructional program.

The learning process should become one of advancement without regard to time, place, or text limitations. The student must be the first concern, and as proficiency in a given knowledge or skill is demonstrated, advancement should follow. Learning centers should replace today's formal classrooms, and students should be guided in the pursuit of knowledge they do not already possess and are capable of acquiring.

CHAPTER 10

New Concepts of Articulation Between Secondary and Postsecondary Schools

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In recent years there has been a major increase in the number of business and office education occupational programs at the secondary, postsecondary, and adult levels. These programs are found in comprehensive high schools, are a vocational-technical schools, community colleges, and private business schools. In an attempt to provide a continuum in which students may move from one educational level to another without unnecessary duplication and delay in achieving their career objectives, there is a need for coordination and articulation of programs at all levels.

In a study by the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education the following definition appeared:

> Articulation is defined as the planned process within the education system which facilitates the transition of students between the secondary and postsecondary levels of instruction and allows the students to move with continuity and without hindrance through levels of the education process.[1]

ARTICULATION NEEDS

In recent years, the demand from the American public has been for more and better educational programs. In an attempt to meet this challenge, numerous educational systems and institutions have been created—each with its own type of specialization. The development of these institutions has resulted in divisions that are distinct—these include elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, area vocational schools, technical institutes, business colleges, community colleges, and universities. Each of these educational divisions has developed strongly individualized entities which are concerned with their own identity and strength. Occupational programs at various levels and in separate educational divisions have developed independently. Perhaps there are many good reasons for this, but it has frequently resulted in programs that are not complementary to one another or that are not designed to be compatible.

The techniques for program planning and development are well defined and have been utilized by the various divisions. Curriculum developers have used advisory committees, panels of consultants, job studies, teaching specialists, occupational and community surveys, and other appropriate individuals and methods to develop programs and curriculum guides. Extensive studies have been conducted to determine the nature of work performed by office employees and to determine the competencies needed by various office employees. However, an articulated program has not been developed that provides a continuum in occupational programs.

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[1] National Advisory Council on Vocational Education. *Articulation*. Washington, D.C.: the Council, May 1976. p. iii.

In a paper presented to the National Seminar for State Directors of Community-Junior Colleges in January 1972, F. Deal Lillie emphasized that a lack of articulation results in duplication of programs between high schools and community colleges, duplication of programs between schools of the same level, and an unwillingness of the community colleges to recognize high school training. He pointed out that the result can only be a waste of financial and manpower resources and a loss of time by students.

A discussion of vocational aims by Feldman reminds the reader that today's students are keenly interested in the world of work and career-oriented in their thinking.[2] As students consider their educational program, they want instruction that will contribute to their competence in the skills and knowledge necessary to earn a living. The thesis of career education is that students need to see learning in the perspective of enabling an individual to become a contributing member of society. This requires a program that begins in the elementary school and which provides opportunities for occupational preparation at the junior and senior years of the secondary program. The secondary program should be articulated with postsecondary programs, and the postsecondary programs should be articulated with college and university programs. Programs of career preparation without artificial barriers should be available to all individuals. Students should be able to move easily from one level to another without loss of credit or the need to repeat parts of a program.

Studies completed on the characteristics of students enrolling in programs at various levels seem to produce conflicting information. According to Lecht, there is considerable evidence that studnets enrolling in programs at the secondary level are significantly different from those who enroll in technical institutes or from those who enroll in community college programs.[3] On the other hand, he observes that students who enroll in the secondary program are much more likely today to continue their education after program completion. A review of follow-up information for secondary school completions in business and office education in Virginia's public schools for the years 1971 through 1975 indicated that between 31 and 35 percent of the completions each year continued their education. This large percentage of high school graduates who continue their education supports the need for a carefully articulated program.

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[2] Feldman, Marvin J. "Vocational Aims—Separated or Integrated." *Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1968. pp. 105–06.

[3] Lecht, Leonard A. *Evaluating Vocational Education—Policies and Plans for the 1970s*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1974. pp. 90–91.

The December 1975 program for the Technical Education Division of the American Vocational Association included six presentations dealing with the problem of articulation. This illustrates the concern felt among vocational educators for program structures that will be of the greatest help to students as they move through the educational system.

The Virginia State Advisory Council on Vocational Education in its Fourth Annual Evaluation Report, November 1973, made the following recommendation concerning articulation:

> Articulation of programs between junior high schools and the high schools, between the high schools and community colleges, and among the high schools, apprenticeship programs, community colleges, and senior institutions should be researched and improved so that more students will be able to continue effectively their job preparation in breadth and depth as they move from one level of formal schooling to another.

BUSINESS EDUCATORS IDENTIFY ARTICULATION NEEDS

An examination of publications on business education and of papers presented by business educators before professional groups helps one to see that the problem of articulation in business education has been addressed directly and indirectly for many years. The first Yearbook of the National Business Education Association, published in 1963, included among the desired outcomes of a secondary school program" . . . developing a foundation for advanced study."[4] The 1976 legislation of the Virginia General Assembly in its bill on Standards of Quality and Objectives for Virginia's Public Schools identifies as one of the six goals of public education that students be qualified for further education and/or employment.

Periodically, references have been made to the problems created by stratification of the educational structure. In discussing the future of the community college program in the 1968 NBEA Yearbook, J. Alvin Dickinson referred to the need for partnership between the educational institutions at the various levels. Because of a lack of specific performance criteria for determining the level and quality of each program and the independent development of programs at all levels, there is a distrust among the various institutions as to the quality and integrity of their occupational preparation programs. Dickinson wrote: "Poor articulation between education institutions at the various levels calls attention to the fact that limiting modes of thought may often operate to a disadvantage. High schools and senior colleges have difficulty in relating smoothly to each other, and junior colleges are victims of poor articulation with both."[5]

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[4] Crank, Doris H., and Crank, Floyd L. "Desired Outcomes of Education and Their Relation to Education for Business." *New Perspectives in Education for Business.* First Yearbook, National Business Education Association, Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1963. Chapter 1, p. 28.

The similarity of some programs and common objectives from one level to another emphasizes the need to identify specific competencies and levels of achievement that will be mutually acceptable in each of the educational institutions. With the increased demand for workers in office occupations as identified in the *1976–77 Occupational Outlook Handbook*, and with the number of individuals being prepared at all educational levels far short of the number of office workers needed in the labor force, there is good reason for duplication of some programs at various levels and a common identification of competency-based performance objectives.

In order to assess current curriculum practices and identify areas in which reinforcement and reform were needed, a three-day invitational National Symposium for Business and Office Education was held in Denver, Colorado, in September 1973. Participants called attention to the fact that postsecondary program articulation was, indeed, a major problem. Articulation of programs was also identified as a problem area in career education. Recommendations that were an outcome of this conference included the need for development of statewide policies for improved articulation across all educational levels.

The 1975 NBEA Yearbook examined the foundations of education for business. In a chapter discussing the contributions of the two-year postsecondary program, a challenge was presented to develop articulation between secondary education programs and senior college programs.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ARTICULATION

A variety of activities, techniques, and methods for articulation of occupational programs in business and office education will be discussed in this chapter. No one suggestion or method will, by itself, achieve articulation; because of the scope of the problem, many avenues must be pursued. Neither can one group of individuals bring about articulation; there must be a concerted effort on the part of many—including instructors, administrators, supervisors, and officials—to bring about the desired articulation of business and office occupations programs.

National Advisory Council for Vocational Education (NACVE) suggestions. In an attempt to determine the status of articulation efforts in the various states, a study and report was made by the National Advisory Council for Vocational Education in 1976. One of the objectives of the study was to identify those factors that encourage effective articulation. The report suggested that articulation might be coordinated through the use of the following: one state agency responsible for vocational education, state-level coordinating committees, state or regional agreements related to programs and administration, and state adopted sequential programs.

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[5] Dickinson, J. Alvin. "Community (Junior) Colleges—Projections for the Future." *Business Education, An Evaluative Inventory*. Sixth Yearbook, National Business Education Association. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1968. Chapter 28, p. 327.

The report also recommended that multifaceted activities be carried on at the state and local levels. Joint workshops for secondary and postsecondary staff, state-level forums for the purpose of identifying and resolving differences, and a close working relationship among all state agencies responsible for the vocational preparation of students and adults were recommended. At the local level, NACVE recommended curriculum committees, task forces to develop competency examinations, advisory committees for both secondary and postsecondary programs, a good working relationship among teachers at grades 10–14, and the sharing of facilities and staff.[6]

Coordination at the state level should also provide a basis for developing competency-based programs, uniform standards for transfer, and instructional materials that can be used by teachers in secondary and postsecondary programs. State-level endorsement and commitment are necessary for articulation to succeed.

Catalogs prepared by the Vocational-Technical Education Consortium of States (V-TECS). V-TECS was organized primarily for the purpose of developing validated catalogs of performance objectives, criterion-referenced measures and performance guides for various occupational fields. Thirteen member states have entered into this consortium to conserve money, time, and effort and prevent unnecessary duplication in the development of materials for competency-based vocational education programs. The 13 member states include Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. As a result of this effort, methods and procedures have been carefully planned and tested so that there will be uniform and quality products from each of the states which participate.[7]

This system has, as one of its secondary objectives, promotion of the concept of performance-based vocational education. The catalogs of objectives include jobs for which training is given at the secondary and the postsecondary levels.

It is suggested that curriculum committees use these catalogs to determine specific objectives for occupational programs and as a basis for developing curriculum guides. When state curriculum committees are formed, individuals from *both* the secondary and postsecondary levels should be included. This will provide for an understanding of the basic performance standards at each level and also serve as a means for determining the placement of students as they move from a secondary to an adult or postsecondary program. The use of these catalogs by state curriculum committees will facilitate the identification of minimum competencies for all programs and enhance the capabilities of prospective workers who complete an occupational program. The establishment of expected minimum competencies for occupational programs has the advantage of being able to identify students who have developed essential marketable skills. Rather than grading on a curve, the teacher measures each student's abilities on the basis of predetermined competencies.

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[6] National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 19–21.

[7] Oliver, J. Dale; Lee, Delene W.; and King, Patricia. *A Catalog of Performance Objectives, Criterion-Referenced Measures and Performance Guides for Secretarial, Stenographic, Typing, and Related Occupations.* Richmond, Va.: State Department of Education, 1975. pp. 1–2.

An articulation plan as part of a comprehensive career education model. Under a grant to the state of Colorado from the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, a model for a performance-based career education curriculum in grades 10–14 was developed. Because the curriculum affected all vocational programs, it was designed as a comprehensive model for both secondary and postsecondary programs, including an articulation phase. In examining this model, it is easy to see the application to business and office education programs.

As a result of the project, articulation agreements were made involving accounting, secretarial science, shorthand, and typing. The articulation phase involved the identification of the program and team members, definition of program scope and sequence, the writing of performance objectives and determination of their performance level, and the definition of problems and constraints.[8]

The first step in the development of an articulation plan requires the identification of the programs in which articulation is most needed and the involvement of instructors as team members from both secondary and postsecondary programs. Before any work can be started on performance objectives, it is necessary to identify the units of instruction to be taught as a part of the total program. Performance objectives are then written for each unit shown in the courses or sequence. After the performance objectives have been written, it is necessary to determine the level of each performance objective. This will serve as the basis for documenting an articulation agreement for the course or program. The members of the team must also define any problems and constraints that may be involved as well as furnish a method for resolving problems that may arise in the future. This model may serve as a basis for the work of articulation committees within any state.

One plan for articulation. An articulation plan was also developed in Maryland for occupational education programs in 1974. The three major parts of the Maryland plan included: (1) an articulation survey, (2) an articulation workshop, and (3) specific articulation activities. A handbook with these suggested activities was developed and has been used primarily for the articulation of business and office education in Maryland.[9]

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[8] Lindahl, Donald G. *Development of a Comprehensive Career Education Model for an Open-Door, Performance Based Curriculum—in Grades 10–14.* Final Report. Golden, Col.: Community College in Denver. Grant No. OEG-072-0780, 1973. pp. 1–4, 113.

[9] Opacinch, Cheryl A., and Linksz. *A Handbook for Articulating High School and Community College Career Programs.* Catonsville, Md.: Catonsville Community College, 1974. pp. 8–35.

Before any plan or agreement can be made for the articulation of programs among educational agencies, there must be an assessment of existing relationships between secondary and postsecondary institutions. It is necessary to determine if there is a climate favorable to articulation in this area. Some activities may already be under way, and these should be identified. Administrators, counselors, and instructors at the secondary and postsecondary institutions should be included in the survey. Furthermore, the survey instrument should include questions that relate to specific attitudes and activities for articulation.

Most articulation surveys will probably reveal the need for greater activity. The best time to initiate steps that will provide an opportunity for secondary and postsecondary personnel to communicate their ideas for articulation is when personnel are aware of the needs and have been thinking about these needs. Groups should be arranged so that an informal exchange of information can take place. Workshops should then provide an opportunity to plan for the maximum use of available resourses; they should also provide an opportunity for individuals who work at each level in a program area to become better acquainted. The greatest benefit from a workshop will result if each group has developed a structure and an agenda of the items to be discussed.

In an articulation workshop for secondary and postsecondary personnel conducted in Virginia in August 1976, the following topics were included: an overview of occupational programs and resources at the secondary and postsecondary levels, information from the State Employment Commission pertaining to specific job opportunities for graduates of vocational education programs, information on resources available through the State Department of Education and the Department of Community Colleges, and program goals and objectives for each of the various occupational areas.

In order to have time to discuss the problems of articulation in depth, several workshop sessions must be scheduled. This will provide an opportunity to analyze competencies needed by workers, review the programs of instruction at various institutions, and begin work on the articulation of programs. Because the articulation process must include many activities of an informational nature, it is important that instructors, students, parents, and administrators all work together with open lines of communication.

Instructors at all levels should know one another and be able to work together cooperatively. Intervisitations, program development and promotion, work on curriculum committees, and the coordination of student organizations at the secondary and postsecondary levels are important. Student organizations can provide a natural avenue for instructors to work cooperatively. Through these organizations, activities can be identified that develop business knowledges and skills, provide opportunities for community service, and develop positive work attitudes.

Improved articulation will be achieved only when there is support from administrators. Guidelines and policy statements must be developed which identify the role and responsibilities of each individual. These guidelines and policy statements must also be widely circulated and discussed by all persons involved with the articulation process.

The cooperative planning of programs to be offered in the junior and senior years of the secondary program and continued and/or initiated at the postsecondary level is vitally important. This is the activity that will be of greatest benefit to students who enroll in these programs. With good program articulation, students will be able to move easily from one level to another. It will also be possible to work out agreements for advanced standing at the postsecondary level for those students who begin their programs in the secondary level.

It must be recognized that a cost factor is involved in cooperative planning for articulation. Released time must be considered for teachers to attend workshops, to work on curriculum committees, to become involved with the business community, and to work with student organizations.

As can be seen from this suggested plan, many and varied activities are included in an articulation effort. Therefore, before the process is begun, there must be a commitment on the part of all of the individuals involved. Furthermore, the process is a continuous one that must extend from year to year.

Other articulation aids. As we have noted, to be successful, there must be maximum teacher involvement and teacher commitment to an articulation plan. A close working relationship is essential among teachers at all levels. Professional organizations can contribute a great deal to this feeling of togetherness. The state business education association should, therefore, be encouraged to structure its organization so that secondary, postsecondary, college, and private business school personnel are included. Specific attention should be given to the needs of these groups and common program elements treated in publications and general meetings of the association. Through clinics and workshop sessions, specific attention can be given to groups of teachers and their special interests. The Virginia Business Education Association has attempted to work in this manner and has seen great participation by teachers at all levels.

State departments of education and community college boards should be encouraged to conduct workshops and conferences for specific program areas rather than for instructors at specific levels in the educational structure. Business education teachers at all levels should also be encouraged to participate in summer conferences sponsored by state departments of education.

CONCLUSION

In order to achieve a well-articulated program in business education, individuals must perceive the need. The direction and commitment of state agencies is essential if the activities are to be conducted in an organized manner. It must be recognized that numerous activities of a continuous nature must be part of the articulation process. Involvement is a key; for it is the instructors who will eventually make the articulation plan succeed or fail. Dedicated effort and commitment are needed to achieve the goals of articulation.

CHAPTER 11

Administration and Supervision of Teacher Preparatory Programs in Business Education

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Teacher preparatory programs in business education which provide for certification usually contain several identifiable common elements, but have a tendency toward organizational and structural differences within institutions. It is not unusual for most of these institutions to have required course offerings in general, content, and professional areas of concentration but with varying curricular configurations. Furthermore, offerings in office administration, special methods, and student teaching represent basic elements in most business teacher preparatory programs. The scope and sequence of these offerings, however, tends to vary from state to state, and even from school to school within the same state. Uniformity is not the hallmark of teacher preparatory programs in business education.

As teacher preparatory programs with different levels of instruction and discipline types are planned to meet certain certification regulations and accreditation standards, they have in many cases become an interdisciplinary mix. Consequently, the administration and supervision of teacher preparatory programs in business education is in most cases become an interdisciplinary mix. Consequently, the administration and supervision of teacher preparatory programs in business education is in most cases greatly influenced by the overall professional education program within the particular institution. The key persons within these teacher preparatory programs usually consist of: (1) the student—the participant in the instructional offerings; (2) the teacher educator—who provides instructional and supervisory experiences for on- and off-campus offerings; and (3) a cooperating classroom teacher—who generally supervises the student during an interim period called student teaching.

The organizational structure of teacher preparatory programs in business education is shaped to a great extent by both internal and external influences. These internal and external influences have been identified partially as: (1) the colleges and schools of education; (2) the organized profession represented by the NEA; (3) state departments of education; and (4) other professional organizations such as the AFT and NCATE[1]

INTERNAL INFLUENCES AFFECTING CERTIFICATION

Program location. Teacher preparatory programs for business education are located in the College of Business or College of Education in most institutions of higher learning. Pros and cons have been given for either location. From an administrative viewpoint, cooperation between the two colleges or divisions is essential if a quality program is to be maintained.

In certain institutions, dual appointments are held by business teacher educators whereby part of the educator's time is allocated to the College of Business and the other part to the College of Education. Apparently, the location of business education teacher preparation programs is neither consistent nor static, with the overall current trend appearing to be a movement toward education divisions and colleges. Concern has been expressed that the result will be pedagogy-oriented programs with a generalization of specific course content.[2] Certain business educators are, as a result, taking a strong stand that business teacher preparation programs be located in the College of Business.[3] In spite of this problem of location, there has been greatly increased cooperation between "academic" and "professional education" faculties on most university campuses.[4]

External influences, which will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter, have tended to create some internal administrative problems related to teacher preparatory programs in business education. For example, since passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the subsequent Amendments in 1968, technical and vocational education programs have been organized and/or realigned in certain institutions of higher learning to prepare teachers for reimbursed programs under State Plans for Vocational Education. Certain institutions of higher learning have made an effort to provide for work experience and additional vocational courses needed to meet state vocational certification requirements. Fifteen states have set a time limit for completing the additional instruction, with the shortest limit one year and the longest limit five years.[5] All states insist upon a minimum of the bachelor's degree for any type of permanent certification in business education.[6] Thirty-eight states require special vocational certification for office education teachers of reimbursed vocational programs.[7]

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[1] Cushman, M. L., and Steeves, Frank. "In Defense of the Comprehensive College of Education." *Phi Delta Kappan* 57:684–88; June 1976.

[2] Pearce, C. Glen. "Update: Business Education College and University Programs." *Journal of Business Education* 51:154–55; January 1976.

[3] Garrison, Lloyd L. "Collegiate Business Education." *NABTE Review* 3:20–24; 1975.

[4] Cushman and Steeves, *op. cit.*

[5] Ginn, Mary Lea. "Can You Teach a Reimbursed Program?" *Balance Sheet* 55:107–09; November 1973.

Approved program approach. Approximately 80 percent of the states utilize "approved program plans" for certification of teachers.[8] Under an "approved program plan" the certification of a teacher is automatic when a student has followed an approved program of instruction in an institution of higher learning. A benefit of such a plan is that faculty groups (internal influences) have direct input in the determination of how teachers are to be prepared. However, restraints are still prevalent from state departments of education and accrediting agencies (external influences) which require institutions to follow established standards and recommendations for teacher preparatory programs.

The "approved program approach" is being expanded to incorporate more than certain specified courses, the different avenues including recommendations from local administrators, statewide examinations, and review of the individual's professional preparation. In most states, a student still applies for certification and the state issues the certification, not on the basis of transcript review by the state, but upon recommendation of the certification officer of the educational institution. Many states are now encouraging competency-based teacher education programs. Consequently, a trend is developing whereby certification will be provided for students in institutions which have approved competency-based programs of teacher preparation.[9]

Classroom teachers. Classroom teachers, through their professional teacher associations (external influences), are beginning to play more active roles in the development of certification policies and standards. To reform certification and make it the responsibility of the profession itself, a number of states are establishing a legal, professional Board of Teacher Certification with responsibility for developing standards and judging qualifications for professional licensure. Twelve states have already established a Council or Commission on Teacher Certification with a majority of the representation being classroom teachers.[10]

As previously noted, classroom teachers have tended to exert an important internal influence on the preparation of prospective teachers by serving as cooperating, supervising teachers. This influence is also increasing as teacher education students enter school classrooms earlier for observation and other types of field experience. Furthermore, teaching centers, in which the classroom teacher is an integral part of the total teacher-preparatory process, are becoming more and more prevalent. The impetus of this movement has added a new dimension to teacher education and certification.[11]

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[6] Keller, William D. "Business Teacher Certification." *Journal of Business Education* 45:293–94; April 1970.

[7] Reeves, Jeanne J. *A Study of Certification Requirements for Teachers of Federally Reimbursed Subjects in Business and Distributive Education on the Secondary and Post-Secondary Levels in the Fifty States.* Master's thesis. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1974.

[8] Stiles, Lindley J. "The Professional License." *NABTE Review* 1:42–47; 1973.

[9] Wakin, Bertha B., and Thompson, Edwin. "Teacher Training and Certification." *Sincerely Yours* 39:20, 25; November 1975.

[10] Spillane, Robert R., and Levenson, Dorothy. "A Question of Control, Not Content," *Phi Delta Kappan* 57:435–39; March 1976.

EXTERNAL INFLUENCES AFFECTING CERTIFICATION

Organized profession. Several teacher organizations are tending to voice opinions on teacher education and, more specifically, on business teacher education. Consequently, organizations such as the NEA and AFT are beginning to exert an influence on the certification of business teachers. Such teacher organizations have reacted to regulations of state departments by mounting powerful lobbies, usually to prevent what might be considered an adverse change in certification procedures.[12]

In the area of business education, the National Association for Business Teacher Education (NABTE) has served teacher education through the development of standards or guidelines for the preparation of business teachers. An indication of this type of external influence is the publication by NABTE entitled *Guidelines for Business Teacher Education*. This publication attempts to serve four distinctly different but related purposes: (1) as a guide to departments of business teacher education engaging in the self-study of their existing programs; (2) as a self-study guide for business teacher education departments in preparing previsitation reports to NCATE visiting teams prior to accreditation visits; (3) as a guide to institutions contemplating or in the process of establishing a business teacher education program at either the undergraduate or graduate level; and (4) as a guide for alleviating weaknesses that may be indicated by a visiting NCATE team.[13]

Data related to the guidelines established by NABTE is included as part of the supporting evidence for team members on National Council on Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) visitations. In recent years, representation from the NEA has also been included on visiting teams for NCATE, with further input from personnel of the particular state department of education where the institution seeking accreditation or reaccreditation is located.

State departments of education. The "approved program approach" discussed previously appears to have taken some direct influence away from state departments of education. However, minimum requirements for an approved program are usually specified by a state department of education for any institution utilizing this approach. Furthermore, the department of education recommends which institutions and which teacher preparatory programs are approved. Federal funding has also given additional control to state departments of education, especially in the area of vocational education, by establishing minimums for certification to teach in certain reimbursed programs.

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[11] Schmieder, Allen A., and Yarger, Sam J. *Teaching Centers: Toward the State of the Scene.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, and Leadership Training Institute for Educational Personnel Development, 1974.

[12] Spillane and Levenson, *op. cit.*

[13] *Guidelines for Business Teacher Education Comprehensive Form.* Third printing. Washington, D.C.: National Association for Business Teacher Education, National Business Education Association, 1975.

Historically, state departments of education have provided the use of written examinations for certifying teachers. Although a recent study focused on New York state's certification system, a broader investigation was made of the written examination used in the certification of teachers in the other 49 states. On the basis of this study, it was found there was inconclusive evidence that written examinations could provide a satisfactory means for certifying "competent" teachers or ensure that those so certified are capable of enabling students to learn.[14]

Basically, state departments of education control the certification of teachers in much the same way that other state agencies control licensure in many of the professions. Thus, certification requirements usually necessitate the taking of courses at institutions of higher learning that the state department of education in that state has determined are capable of developing particular knowledge and skills.[15]

Accrediting agencies. Various accrediting agencies have exerted considerable influence upon teacher preparatory programs in business education. Although there are over 30 accrediting agencies, the two agencies which probably exert the greatest influence on business teacher preparatory programs are the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) and the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

One of the most significant influences on teacher preparatory programs for business teachers, especially in schools accredited by AACSB, is the emphasis placed on business content courses.[16] The AACSB ruling mandating that all students entering business education programs as of the fall of 1976 complete the bachelor of business administration degree program will undoubtedly have a major influence on future business teacher education programs.[17]

NCATE concentrates its attention on the total teacher education program of a college or university. All basic and advanced programs of teacher education offered are accredited by NCATE. The council does not accredit separately teacher education for special areas such as business education. This does not negate NCATE interest in business education; for part of the self-evaluative process required by NCATE incorporates the use of special published guidelines, such as those mentioned earlier and developed by NABTE, as supportive evidence of a sound business education program.

Certification is a concern of NCATE to the extent that each discipline, including business education, is successfully preparing preservice students for the role of a certified teacher through the institution's basic program. The qualifications of the teaching faculty are a serious concern of NCATE, with the recommendation that teaching faculty in the teacher preparatory programs be certified teachers under the regulations and policies of the particular state.

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[14] Mackey, Charles Christopher, Jr. *Written Examinations in Teacher Certification: A Focus on New York State.* Doctor's thesis. Albany: University of New York at Albany, 1974.

[15] Spillane and Levenson, *op. cit.*

[16] Garrison, *op. cit.*

[17] Roman, John C. "Business Education in 1984." *American Vocational Journal* 51:41-43; February 1976.

Two basic concerns appear to surface when the purposes of accreditation are considered. First, the question arises as to whether the accrediting agency should be used to identify institutions which have the resources, commitment, and expertise needed to sponsor an effective teacher preparatory program on a continuous basis while meeting minimum standards established in many cases by state departments of education. The second question relates to the extent to which an accrediting agency should attempt to stimulate institutions to improve their programs.

Accrediting agencies deal with many other problems facing teacher education. Furthermore, performance-based teacher education could cause accreditation in the future to be based on elements of substantive achievement as well as encourage a rethinking of admissions criteria.[18]

COMPETENCY-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

Internal influences. Individuals associated with institutions preparing business teachers have in varying degrees, already become involved in the movement of competency-based teacher education and certification. Because competency-based teacher education is viewed by verious individuals to mean so many things, this confusion or lack of definition is probably the single most serious issue confronting the movement at present.[19] Another major problem associated with the movement is the definition and description of effective teaching performance.[20] In many cases, as is true of other innovations, administrators have "jumped the gun" in their effort to institute competency-based teacher education without the support of those individuals most directly involved in the teacher preparatory program. To further compound the problem, many competency-based teacher education programs have been implemented without a clear set of criteria for the goals of the program.[21]

In spite of the many problems within institutions of higher learning and with cooperating teachers and administrators in the field, the popularity of competency-based teacher education presents the opportunity for increased collaboration between the university and business community in the training of teachers.[22] For some time, the identification of tasks performed by office workers has been a major concern in the restructuring of office administration course offerings. Similarly, specifically identified teaching competencies are being researched to serve as a basis for competency-based business teacher education programs.[23]

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[18] Larson, Rolf W. *Accreditation Problems and the Promise of PBTE*. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1974.

[19] Rosner, Benjamin, and Kay, Patricia M. "Will the Promise of C/PBTE Be Fulfilled?" *Phi Delta Kappan* 55:290–95; January 1974.

[20] McDonald, Frederick J. "The National Commission on Performance-Based Education." *Phi Delta Kappan* 55:296–98; January 1974.

[21] Sipkens, John Folkert, and Turkovich, Tony Frank. *Competency-Based Teacher Education and Its Characteristics*. Doctor's thesis. Bozeman: Montana State University, 1973.

In a recent position statement by the Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, further support is given to the movement by the recommendation, that a continuous-progress program be considered as a viable alternative to the semester or year administrative units.[24] This position is strengthened by the fact that over 17 states have mandated that certification of teachers change from a course-structured program, as mentioned earlier, to a competency-based program.[25]

External influences. As has been noted, performance-based teacher education is already having an impact on teacher preparation institutions (internal influences). Furthermore, the influence of the movement extends through state departments of education, accrediting associations, and teacher organizations (external influences).[26] Although several state teacher certification agencies are moving toward competency-based certification, they are not specifying the exact manner such competency is to be assessed.[27] With the external pressures for accountability as reflected in the current emphasis on teaching/learning objectives, management by objectives (MBO), and PPBS (planning, programing, budgeting systems) for fiscal responsibility, competency-based education is growing from the same cultural press.[28]

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), a constituent organization of NCATE, has been one of the most significant external influences in bringing national attention to the movement. Although concerns continue to be expressed as to how performance-based teacher education is being viewed and implemented, the AACTE Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, among others, lists several promising advantages: (1) its attention to individual abilities and needs; (2) its focus on objectives; (3) its emphasis on the sharing process by which these objectives are formulated and used as the basis of evaluation; (4) its efficiency, enhanced by the use of feedback; and (5) its student and program accountability features.[29]

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[22] Lutz, Barbara K., and Lutz, Jay P. "Competency-Based System for Office Occupations." *Journal of Business Education* 51:319–21; April 1976.

[23] Hebert, Mary Margaret. *An Analysis of Competencies Needed by Typewriting Teachers as Perceived by Business Teachers and by Authorities in Business Education.* Doctor's thesis. Houston: University of Houston, 1973; Prather, Helen. *An Analysis of Competencies Needed by Shorthand Teachers as Perceived by Business Teachers and By Authorities in Business Education.* Doctor's thesis. Houston: University of Houston, 1974; Norton, Charles Teho. *An Analysis of the Competencies Needed by Bookkeeping/Accounting Teachers as Perceived by Authorities and Teachers of Bookkeeping/Accounting.* Doctor's thesis. Houston: University of Houston, 1975; Sherman, Nora Jo Martin. *An Analysis of Competencies Needed by Introductory Data Processing Teachers as Perceived by Authorities and Teachers of Data Processing.* Doctor's thesis. Houston: University of Houston, 1975.

[24] *This We Believe about Competency-Based Education. Business Education Forum* 31:68; October 1976.

[25] Brown, Kenneth W., and Hebert, Margaret. "Competency-Based Business Teacher Education." *Journal of Business Education* 49:27–28, October; 57–58, November; 111–12, December 1974.

[26] Elam, Stanley. *A Resume of Performance-Based Teacher Education.* PBTE Series No. 1-a. Washington, D.C.; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1972.

[27] Cooper, George; Elliot, Evelyn; and Fiber, Larry. "Place Your BETC on Your Students." *Journal of Business Education* 49:203–05; February 1974.

[28] Houston, W. Robert, and others. *Exploring Competency-Based Education.* Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1974.

SUMMARY

The administrative and supervisory processes of teacher preparation programs in various education are being influenced greatly by certification modification through both internal and external forces. The movement toward an "approved program approach" and a more discretionary control of certification by institutions of higher learning, causes the location of the teacher preparatory program in a particular institution to have a significant bearing on certification requirements. Additionally, cooperating teachers who provide field experience settings for business education students are becoming more involved in the certification process, especially with the movement toward teaching centers.

State departments of education, accrediting agencies, and teachers organizations, along with teacher preparatory institutions, are becoming involved with competency-based teacher education and its relation to certification. The advantages and disadvantages being voiced for and against the movement are drawing wide attention among administrators and supervisors of business teacher preparatory programs. Although presently it is too early to assess fully the impact of performance-based preparation on teacher certification, the movement will certainly require the close observation of administrators and supervisors, especially as more research becomes available related to its success or failure.

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[29] Elam, Stanley. *Performance-Based Teacher Education*. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1971.

CHAPTER 12

Research Activities Essential to Program Development

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EDITOR'S NOTE: The itemized research questions and issues in this chapter are based on a survey by the author of 50 business teacher educators in NABTE institutions, 50 state supervisors of business education, and 50 state presidents of business education professional associations.

For the past two decades, the momentum of change in education has been steadily increasing, with the emphasis shifting from concern with group norms toward concern for the individual. These changes bring with them specific implications for business education program development which include these trends: (1) Identification of individualized learning objectives based on the unique educational goals of the student; (2) planning of learning experiences for the individual based on his/her previous experiences and preferred learning style; (3) increased use of alternative methods of education, that is, learning experiences planned and implemented outside the framework of a traditional school setting; (4) increased involvement of the business community in the educational program; (5) emphasis on demonstration of competencies rather than completion of a specified time in school or number of courses completed; (6) flexible scheduling and around-the-clock programs to meet learner needs and timetables; (7) increased use of technology including a computerized management information system for recordkeeping and sequence coordination; (8) increased use of independent study and investigation by students both in and out of school; (9) increased use of diversified staffing, including nonteaching specialists for materials preparation, development of computer programs, recordkeeping and testing; and (10) increased use of research as a tool for program planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Program development in business education is moving from teacher-centered instruction toward student-centered programs. This change in emphasis is bringing about new patterns of designing, managing, and evaluating learning environments. It will require educators who are skilled in (a) designing learning systems, assessing learner behavior, identifying learning styles, and using school and community resources to capitalize on the development and contributions of students; (b) developing and assembling materials and methods to match learner needs; (c) analyzing labor market trends and findings as a basis for sound program development; (d) adapting research in learning theory and principles as a foundation for program development; and (e) engaging parents, employers, students, and community personnel in planning and conducting programs.

This chapter focuses on the role of research in business education program development. Special attention is given to areas of needed research that possess implications for long-range program development.

The function of research in planning programs for the future is generally accepted as crucial and, in the long run, indispensable. Traditionally, research in business education has lagged behind other educational research which, in turn, has not kept pace with research in business and industry. For many decades, business educators have been preoccupied with the organization and implementation of programs in order to keep ahead of demands for job training. Until the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, most of the research in business education was done in the form of theses, dissertations, and a limited amount of independent investigation. Indeed, one criticism that must be leveled at much current business education research is that by concentrating on the immediate problems, it quickly becomes obsolete so far as the future is concerned. There is much criticism today of crisis government and crisis management whereby the executive staggers from one problem to another through a series of short-term expedient decisions which might best be described as a "band-aid" approach. Yet, is not this a weakness in business education where research responds largely to today's problems? Much more time should be allocated to looking at problems a few years ahead of time. In this way, it would be possible to conduct experiments, develop programs, create assessment devices, and undertake the surveys necessary to provide the research data *before* policies are finalized and *before* program decisions are made. Too much time is spent by educators in producing results that are no longer relevant. Research is needed to provide the factual climate within which educational policy decisions are made.

PROGRAM PLANNING RESEARCH NEEDS

This section focuses on questions, issues, and ideas that need to be researched in seven major areas related to program planning in business education. The questions presented are typical of those that should be answered if program planning is to keep pace with the changing needs of individuals and business in the years ahead.

1. Curriculums and individualized instructional systems. First, the expansion of knowledge, technological advances, and the increasing specialization of the labor force demands the revision of existing curriculums and the development of new programs, materials, and instructional systems to prepare students for changing and emerging occupations. At the same time, the shift from teacher-centered to student-centered learning systems creates a need for more information about how people learn, identification of preferred learning modes, provision for students with special needs, assessment of student capabilities and achievement, matching the learner and his/her objectives with appropriate media, material, and instructional patterns.

A priority concern is the development and use of criterion-referenced objectives. Within five years high school graduates will be showing employers and colleges a list of skills they have accomplished instead of grades they have earned. These competencies will be a part of school records and will include general skills thought to be needed by all individuals in order to function effectively in society. For example, such a record would show the ability to read and write at twelfth grade level and proficiency in computing interest, balancing a checkbook, purchasing insurance, and completing tax forms. For years, business education has cited personal-use or general education benefits to all students as an important objective. Research is needed to identify in detail the personal and vocational competencies needed by high school graduates.

Numerous questions relating to curriculums and individualized instructional systems are continuously being raised. The following are examples of researchable questions, issues, and ideas that will have direct influence on future program development in business education. Many of these questions were suggested to the author by business education supervisors, teacher educators, and teachers in a nationwide poll of research needs in the field.

BUSINESS CURRICULUM. (1) What vocational and personal business competencies are needed by all students? (2) How is student achievement affected by a competency-based curriculum with emphasis on individualized instruction and self-pacing as compared to the traditional approach to instruction? (3) What are the implications of rapid changes in business practice for the business education curriculum?

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION. (1) What are the guidelines for starting and operating an individualized instructional program? (2) What is the function of the teacher in individualized instruction? (3) What are the effects on student performance of learning variables such as manner of pacing, varieties of confirmation and prompting, types of review conditions, size of block, degree of redundancy, and feedback? (4) To what extent is individualized instruction being used in the business cirriculum and with what degree of success? (5) In open labs and self-paced or individualized instructional programs, what factors operate to bring about success in some cases and failure in others? (6) What personality traits are evident in students who succeed or fail in the context of individualized instruction? (7) What are the advantages and disadvantages of open-entry/open-exit programs and variable credits at the college level?

SPECIAL NEEDS. (1) How can business education be adapted to better serve the needs of students with various types of special needs (behavior disorder, slow learner, nonreader, mentally retarded, potential dropout, handicapped, disadvantaged, and even the gifted)? (2) How can more academically talented students be attracted into business courses at the high school and college levels? (3) Are business and industry changing minimum entry-level requirements? If so, how and why? Should business and industry lower entry-level requirements to accommodate the educationally deprived?

CAREER EDUCATION. (1) What is the role of business-office education and of business educators within the concept of career education? (2) How can business education contribute to and profit from career education? (3) What are the implications of career education for business programs at each school level? (4) Have career exploratory classes in junior high school contributed to better placement of students in senior high school occupational preparation classes?

COMPUTATIONAL SKILLS (1) What are the competencies in machine calculation needed by beginning office workers and by business teachers? (2) How can machines instruction be effectively integrated with mathematics? office practice? simulation? (3) To what extend has data processing affected accounting procedures in business? (4) To what extent and how effectively have data processing procedures been integrated into the content of accounting instruction? (5) What software/hardware should be employed in teaching data processing at a given level—new languages, use of terminals, minicomputers? (6) What are the effects of computer-augmented accounting instruction on student achievement? (7) What are the bookkeeping/accounting/recordkeeping competencies needed by office workers? (8) What changes should be made in accounting instruction to meet the vocational needs of students?

BUSINESS-ECONOMIC-CONSUMER EDUCATION. (1) What has been the effect of the vocational business education emphasis upon the *general* business education needs in secondary schools? (2) What are the effects of general business as a diagnostic (guidance-oriented) as compared to a survey (student-oriented) course at the ninth grade exploratory level? (3) How closely are teachers of general business classes working toward and achieving performance objectives as developed for these classes? (4) What interdisciplinary mix best accomplishes the teaching of consumer economics? (5) What consumer-related courses should be offered in business education? (6) In view of adult status at age 18, to what extent are high school and college students prepared for money-management decisions? (7) What is the most effective curriculum pattern for facilitating the teaching of economic understandings in the high school?

COMMUNICATION SKILLS. (1) How can business educators best contribute to the development of communication skills—through separate courses or integrated learning experiences in all courses? (2) What is the influence of gross words per minute as a speed indicator in typewriting as influenced by word processing? (3) What is the status of blending of typewriter skill development and communication skills development? (4) Which symbol shorthand system has the shortest learning period while providing effective entry-level job skills? (5) What are the learning difficulties and level of skill achievement in machine shorthand as compared with written shorthand systems? (6) How can the failure rate in shorthand be reduced? (7) What is the relative effectiveness of each of the following in determining degree of preparedness for entry-level employment: model office simulation versus position simulation? simulation versus cooperative education? (8) What are the relative merits of work experience, simulation, and traditional class work on attitude and achievement?

CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS. (1) What are the implications of metrication for business education? (2) How can reprographics/micrographics training be incorporated effectively into the business curriculum? (3) What are the implications of word processing and other new data communication techniques for business education programs? (4) What are the effects, both technical and human, of word processing on the teaching of typewriting and transcription?

2. *Planning, management, and evaluation systems.* A second need is to develop and validate alternative program planning, management, and evaluation systems with specifications for their use at state and local levels. Part of the difficulty of providing evidence of accountability in business education is a lack of tested management systems. The following are questions related to articulation, facilities, evaluation, scheduling, and delivery systems that lend themselves to investigation. (1) How can programs at the secondary and postsecondary levels be coordinated to eliminate duplication of effort and at the same time facilitate transfer of credit? (2) To what extent should secondary teachers be involved in planning for postsecondary vocational-technical schools and vice versa? (3) How can business education and distributive education programs be better coordinated to broaden student alternatives and options? (4) What should be the long-range goals of business education at the various levels as perceived by teachers, administrators, students, parents, and business leaders? (5) What is the effect of the state plan on program planning and development in business education at the local level? (6) How can new instructional patterns and delivery systems be effected in business education? (7) What are the kinds and characteristics of certificate programs in the field? Which should be deleted, and which new ones should be added? (8) What are the effects of various scheduling patterns on student attitude and achievement? (9) What instructional methods are most effective with use of the block-time arrangement? (10) What program planning, development and evaluative services should be expected from state and local business education supervisors? (11) What is the effect of the changing role of a state supervisor from specialist to generalist on delivery services and relations with teachers? (12) How highly do teachers' subjective evaluation of students correlate with quantitative achievement data? (13) What are the bases for evaluating business programs at various instructional levels? How were they derived, and how valid are they? (14) What are the most

effective criteria for evaluating teacher effectiveness? (15) What are the specific effects of vocational education legislation on business education programs? (16) What is the role of business as a related and supportive area of vocational education?

3. *Personnel development models.* Designing effective procedures for identifying training needs of personnel, for updating and orienting people for new and emerging work roles, and for providing prototypic models for personnel development represent a vital need in business education of the future. Although the present discussion is focused on preparation of teachers, competency-based procedures are equally applicable to other occupations.

Business teacher education has been criticized by teachers, supervisors, and administrators on the grounds that (1) the content of courses is not always relevant to the problems of classroom teachers; (2) courses are too similar and with too much repetition among them; (3) instructors often provide general ideologies, but seldom relate these to the solution of problems actually encountered by teachers; and (4) very little individualized instruction is used in teacher education in many states. The response to these criticisms is a general movement toward competency-based teacher preparation programs and performance-oriented certification. Criterion-referenced tests are but one aspect of a multiple-evidence approach projected for use by several states for the certification of teachers. Although these tests represent a step in the right direction, much research is needed to determine their validity as predictors of success in teaching.

Examples of questions and issues that should be researched in connection with the development of viable personnel development models are: (1) To what extent are college business teacher education trainees being taught to design individualized learning systems? (2) What are the promising unique preservice and in-service practices in business teacher education throughout the country? (3) How does the performance of teachers certified under competency-based procedures compare with those certified in other ways? (4) What standards should be used throughout the U.S. to certify business teachers? (5) What competencies in accounting (or other business areas) provide the most effective background for teachers? (6) What should be the pattern of preparation for teachers of data processing? (7) How much, how recent, and what kind of work experience should be required of business teachers? (8) What is the relationship between professional activity and a teacher's effectiveness in the classroom? (9) What is the role of the paraprofessional and nonteaching specialist in business education under a diversified staffing plan? (10) What current and emerging needs of business teachers could be resolved through staff development training? (11) What role expectations do students, beginning teachers, and experienced teachers have regarding teacher education programs? (12) Do competencies reflect the changing role of the teacher and incorporate skills needed in student-centered, individualized programs? (13) Are there measurable differences in achievement in classes that use performance objectives and those that do not? (14) What are the relative merits of providing a listing of competencies mastered rather than a grade upon completion of a course or program of work? (15) To what extent are teacher performance objectives being used in business education on the various school levels? To what extent are they being met?

4. *Student recruitment and selection*. The focal point of program development is the student. The instructional program—materials, media, facilities and equipment—is greatly influenced by student characteristics (type and level of interests, capabilities, achievements) and size of enrollment. The current trend toward expansion of vocational offerings in the comprehensive high school will offer more varied opportunities to all students, resulting in smaller enrollments in traditional fields. Decreasing enrollments in some areas of business education may bring about a need for reorganization of the field and improved performance in guidance and counseling.

Examples of questions and issues that should be researched in the area of student recruitment and selection are: (1) What factors affect changes in enrollment in business education? (2) What can be done to stimulate enrollments in business classes? (3) What factors influence students toward and away from business education? (4) How can stereotyping of students—boys into management and data processing and girls into secretarial—be prevented? (5) What kinds of measurement and evaluation procedures are used by guidance counselors to assist in the counseling of prospective business students? How successful are they? (6) What is the profile of students enrolled in postsecondary business education programs?

5. *Manpower and job information*. A fifth need lies in the development and use of manpower and job information in combination with knowledge about the different user groups to aid effective occupational orientation and exploration programs and facilitate the transition from school to job. This data should be used to develop relevant curriculum designs that reflect current and emerging job and skill requirements. A major concern of program planners at the state and local level is labor market trends and employment needs. Rapid changes in business, industry, and government make this an area that requires researching frequently. A common complaint is the lack of relevance of the training program to the world of work. What precisely has been the influence of technology on jobs in office occupations? As a result of the impact of technology, office workers will need a higher level of skill, better general education, and more maturity. Newer occupations will generally involve fewer manual skills and more cognitive understandings, and versatility will be more valuable than a high degree of specialization. Documented research data is needed to support, refute, or modify these assumptions. Studies such as NOBELS have made definite contributions to the identification of skill and social-interaction competencies needed by entry-level office workers. More recently, the V-TECS study has pro-

vided valuable although more geographically limited data along these lines.

The following are examples of questions and issues related to program development that possess significant implications for research: (1) Do large-scale studies (such as NOBELS and V-TECS) need to be repeated periodically, or can adequate generalization be made from the findings of more limited studies completed on local levels? (2) What are the present and anticipated demands for personnel to provide for replacement and new positions in the office occupations? (3) What are the emerging occupations for which business education should develop programs? (4) What tasks or positions are being replaced by automation and what new ones are being created in the office occupations? (5) Do business education students fare better than other students in getting jobs during periods of relatively high unemployment? (6) What effects has the "free elective theory" had upon the development of marketable skills and the employability of business students? (7) What proportion of students who drop out of school at all levels find employment in business? What are their jobs and what is the minimum training required for them? (8) What is the occupational profile for clerical, secretarial, data processing, and accounting occupations? (9) What are comparative wage rates for entry-level office jobs among county, state, federal, and private industry offices?

6. *Community-centered learning experiences.* Community resources in the future will be widely sought as alternate means of achieving academic credit. One example is the Employer-Based Career Education Model which provides educational programs in industry settings. It offers job experiences provided by a consortium of local employers. The Academy for Career Education, established by Research for Better Schools, Inc., in Philadelphia, is built on the employer-based career education concept. Its program involves four components: a management structure, an instructional program, guidance and counseling activities, and an evaluation plan. More than half of the instructional program is conducted by employers. The general education aspect of the model uses community resources such as demonstrations and small-group instruction by artists and others in reaching its objectives. The explorative area provides a structured series of examinations of employer clusters with the student spending one or two days a week in the business firm. Career specialization is a work-study plan which provides for direct involvement with career and life-skills experiences for the student.

Industry-based programs for college credit and for training adults in basic education skills represent other examples of community-centered education which are likely to increase. Extensive and continuing research is needed to provide information for more effective incorporation of community-related experiences in future business education programs. Such questions and issues as the following need to be answered: (1) To what extent are employers willing and able to contribute to business education? (2) What management systems are most effective for overseeing and coordinating in-school and community experiences? (3) What competencies are best developed in an employer-based setting? (4) What criteria should be employed for selection of students to participate in community-centered learning experiences? (5) How can community resources be most effectively used in small towns or rural communities with limited business enterprise? (6) What is the role of the teacher in community-centered learning? (7) What modifications should be made in work-study programs to more effectively capitalize on community resources?

7. Innovation-diffusion-adoption strategies. A seventh need in business education program planning is for better innovation-diffusion-adoption strategies. How can the time lag that exists between the introduction of a program innovation and its adoption by business educators be shortened? How can systemic diffusion networks be developed and implemented that will assure effective and rapid use of new and innovative research-based learning products?

Research in business education has been annotated, indexed, and stored for retrieval by a number of summaries such as the Review and Synthesis documents published by the Center for Vocational Education, the Delta Pi Epsilon *Index to Doctoral Dissertations*, the NBEA research yearbook (*Contributions of Research to Business Education*), the NBEA *Guide to Research in Business Education*, the NBEA summaries of research completed annually, and the AIM/ARM publications of the ERIC system. Increasing amounts of information on business education are becoming available. Funded research projects are needed to identify, organize, synthesize, and interpret the current knowledge and learning process into an inclusive and refined conceptualization for dissemination to individuals and disciplines sharing a common interest in business education. When this is accomplished, investigators should be able to utilize the findings to minimize redundancy in research, to facilitate ongoing investigations, and to identify gaps in our present knowledge about the field. Who should provide the leadership and funding for such a comprehensive research effort?

For research to have the impact that is needed, there are at least four underlying assumptions that should be accepted by administrators of business education programs: (1) educational practices need to be continuously challenged, evaluated, and redesigned; (2) schools and departments need the ability to adapt meaningfully to proven innovative practices; (3) the most crucial single factor is the competence of the teacher; little progress can be made until more professionally competent and committed teachers give priority to their role as change agents; and (4) research and development involves administrators, supervisors, teachers, and others working together to resolve significant questions and needs in the field.

Just as it is not possible to feel satisfied with what has been learned during the past, so it is not possible to overlook the great increase in research productivity in all problem areas of business education since

1963. The outlook for research in business education is most encouraging. Business educators are becoming more knowledgeable in the area of research design and analysis and there is steady improvement in the quality of research.

Researchers have begun to discover the intricacies of problems in the field and to identify the relevant variables. It is true that with each serious study more questions are raised than are answered. The scope of concerns, however, is widening. No dramatic solutions to persistent problems have been achieved. But is it reasonable to expect research answers so soon to persistent problems that have defied solutions by all the nonresearch means business educators have been able to bring to bear? Research needs time to mature, and with the help of all educational researchers, to develop the tools necessary to solve complex operational problems. The development of those tools is dependent upon long-term programmatic research efforts.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS

The development of viable business education programs for the future cannot be left to chance. Programs that reflect an increasing emphasis on individual interests, talents, achievements, and capabilities will require careful planning and the involvement of professional educators, specialists, lay persons, parents, employers, and students. Programs must be built on sound principles of learning. Program planners should draw heavily from research in all appropriate disciplines in developing, implementing, and evaluating programs. They should also plan and conduct research applicable to their own particular setting.

For the administrator and supervisor of business education there are several specific research implications. These include (1) securing adequate training in research methods so as to use efficiently its tools and techniques; (2) locating and becoming familiar with existing research applicable to business education program planning; (3) preparing research proposals for submission to funding agencies; (4) summarizing, interpreting, and disseminating research findings to teachers, principals, curriculum personnel, directors, deans, and boards of education; (5) generating research studies related to program development; and (6) organizing and implementing staff development studies and programs designed to train and retrain teachers in emerging trends and practices in the field.

The challenge of the future is in keeping abreast of sweeping changes in the field, of ways and means of researching new problems and issues. For research is the lifeblood of business education just as it is the source of new and better business practices and products. Certainly it never comes easily. It is a slow and often painful process, and it requires time, energy, dedication, and resources. The field of business education is faced with many unanswered questions, problems, and issues. A lack of answers and resolution of such questions does tend to make the field less effective than it could be. There is much to be gained by confronting these problems. Business education, like other fields of learning, never stands still. It either moves forward through the bold thinking and imaginative research of its leaders, or the lack of leadership and innovative thinking will force it to slide backward. The future of research in business education is in the hands of every administrator, supervisor, and teacher in the field. An increased commitment to research today will pay substantial dividends in improved and adaptable business education programs for the 1980's and beyond.

CHAPTER 13

Federal Legislation Affecting Business Education

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Federal legislation has had a significant effect on business and office education. As early as 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act made funds available to reimburse costs of conducting classes in part-time continuation schools to meet the needs of office and store workers. Early legislation such as the Morrill Act emphasised training youth in agriculture and the mechanical arts. It provided a setting in which education for business also flourished.

One of the most significant impacts of federal legislation has been to stimulate state and local educational agencies toward positive change. Legislation has encouraged the building of more than 2,500 area vocational-technical schools in this country providing badly needed new facilities for business education along with other occupational areas. The increased emphasis on research, evaluation, and planning contained in several legislative acts has required business educators to examine the goals and outcomes of their programs more systematically.

The importance of business and office education in the context of education and training for employment has been greatly enhanced by federal legislation. Because at least a third of the jobs available in the work force are of a clerical, secretarial, data collection and processing nature, business education has been an increasingly important part of vocational education.

SIGNIFICANT FEDERAL LEGISLATION

It is impossible to describe all the details of legislation affecting business education in a brief chapter. The attempt is to give an overview of the important and most significant legislative acts that have influenced business education. Federal acts such as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and the Civil Rights Act have affected all educational programs. For example, the impact of the Civil Rights Act, Title IX, with its prohibitions against sex discrimination in certain types of educational institutions is certainly being felt. The significance that the concepts underlying Title IX will have on vocational education programming in the future is just being realized. Emphasis is on the availability of vocational education programs to students of both sexes. All courses and, more importantly, all occupations will be open to students of both sexes.

Federal legislation has provided a stimulus for the growth of vocational education. Most of the significant federal legislation affecting vocational education from the early years to the present is summarized below in chronological order.

1862—The First Morrill Act. This act is known by the name of its major sponsor, Senator Justin A. Morrill of Vermont. It is also familiarly known as the original "Land-Grant Act." It was officially designated as "An Act Donating Public Lands to the Several States and Territories Which May Provide Colleges for the Benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts." Some of the lands were used as campuses for the establishment of institutions which would emphasize occupational training.

1887—The Hatch Act. The Hatch Act of 1887, familiarly known as the "Experimental Stations Act," appropriated $15,000 annually to each state for the establishment and maintenance of an agricultural experiment station. This sum was subsequently increased.

1890—The Second Morrill Act. This act is better known as "The Maintenance Act." Under its authority, many parcels of public lands granted under the first Morrill Act were sold and the proceeds therefrom used to better endow and support programs of agriculture and the mechanic arts.

It is interesting to compare federal appropriations over a span of years. For example, whereas today such appropriations amount to several millions of dollars annually to each state, the early federal appropriations per state were in the range of $15,000 to $50,000. Increases were usually in the range of $1,500 to $5,000 per state per year.

1906—The Adams Act. The effect of this Act was to increase from $15,000 to $30,000 the annual appropriation provided to each state under the Hatch Act.

1907—The Nelson Amendment. This amendment of the two Morrill Acts provided increased federal aid to the states for land-grant colleges. The annual sum of $25,000 per state previously provided was automatically increased by $5,000 per year until the maximum of $50,000 was reached.

1911—The State Nautical School Act. Under this Act, funds were provided for training in the seafaring occupations. However, despite its narrow purpose, this Act is highly significant in the history of federal grants for vocational education because it established the principle of requiring state and local matching of federal dollars.

1914—The Agricultural Extension Act. This Act, frequently referred to as "The Smith-Lever Act," provided dollar-for-dollar matching to generate state and local funds for programs of cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics. It provided field demonstrations, publications, and other types of communication and instruction to farmers and homemakers who were not formally enrolled as students in any educational institution.

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1917—The Smith-Hughes Act. This Act was, as of the time of its enactment, the most significant and comprehensive legislation ever approved by Congress for the support and promotion of vocational education. This Act achieved three major objectives:

1. It encouraged all of the states to undertake the establishment of this vital type of education on a broader, permanent basis;
2. It offered federal financial assistance to the states and through the states to their local communities to help defray the costs of this more expensive type of education; and
3. It provided legislative safeguards to protect federal appropriations by setting minimum operational standards and by specifying the purposes for which vocational education funds could be expended if a state wished to qualify for federal matching funds on a dollar-for-dollar basis.

Some indication of the national interest and progress in vocational education resulting from the first three years of functioning under the Smith-Hughes Act (1918–21) may be gained from the following approximate figures:

1. All expenditures (federal, state and local) for vocational education increased nearly 300 percent, from $2.68 million to $10.65 million;
2. Local funds for vocational education also increased 300 percent, from $1.20 million to $5.18 million;
3. Enrollment in federally assisted vocational schools increased nearly 100 percent, from 164,000 to 323,000; and
4. Enrollment in federally aided teacher education courses increased 100 percent, from 6,600 to 13,300 students.

Historically, one of the most significant features of the Smith-Hughes Act was the permanency of its funding. All of its appropriations for vocational education programs, amounting to $7.2 million annually, were automatic each year, requiring no further action by Congress.

The Smith-Hughes Act remained substantially unchanged for more than four decades, except for increased appropriations and the addition of new areas of occupational education. In retrospect, it can be viewed as the culmination of an evolutionary process that strengthened the bonds of cooperation between governments on the federal, state, and local levels in the furtherance of vocational education throughout America.

1917–45. During the period from 1917–45, several additional laws supplementing the Smith-Hughes Act were passed, notably the George-Reed Act of 1929, the George-Ellzey Act of 1934, and the George-Dean Act of 1936. However, all were superceded by subsequent legislation.

1946—The George-Barden Act. In addition to the allocations already provided annually by the Smith-Hughes Act, the George-Barden Act authorized a substantial increase in matching funds for vocational agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial training. Then, going beyond the Smith-Hughes Act, it earmarked funds for distributive education and also permitted the use of limited funds (10 percent) for purchasing instructional equipment, which was not permissible under the Smith-Hughes Act. These authorizations amounted to a total increase of $28.5 million annually over the Smith-Hughes annual appropriation of $7.2 million.

In 1956 the George-Barden Act was amended to provide funds for practical nurse training and training in the fisheries trades. In 1958, it was further amended by Title VIII of the National Defense Education Act to provide funds for technical education.

1961–62—The Manpower Development and Training Legislation. In 1961, the Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) authorized special job training programs for workers in economically depressed areas of the country. In 1962, the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) expanded the job training effort to include all areas of the country and to provide training and retraining opportunities for qualified unemployed and underemployed persons in the labor market.

The ARA program was merged with MDTA in 1965. This continued to be a massive effort with annual appropriations on the national level approximating, at times, nearly a half billion dollars. On December 8, 1973, President Nixon signed into law the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) which became effective July 1, 1974, thereby repealing the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Manpower Development and Training programs covered a broad occupational spectrum offering training in hundreds of specific occupations as described in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT). In one year, about half of the trainees were enrolled in skilled or semiskilled categories; over one-fifth were enrolled in the clerical and sales field. Much of the training for these people was provided by business teachers on a part-time or full-time basis. These business teachers enjoyed the atmosphere of experimentation in vocational training and were willing to trade the lack of tenure for the relatively high hourly rates paid under the Act.

1963—The Vocational Education Act of 1963. The most significant legislation in the history of vocational education was the Vocational Education Act of 1963 which became operative during fiscal year 1965. This legislation grew out of a concern expressed by President John F. Kennedy when, in 1961, he appointed a Panel of Consultants representing many diversified segments of American society such as business, industry, labor, education, and citizens groups. The Panel was charged with the responsibility to study and make recommendations concerning vocational education. They were particularly concerned with strengthening vocational education at the high school level so that students who did not continue education beyond high school or who dropped out before high school graduation would have salable skills to offer in the employment market. Recommendations included in the Panel's final report, *Education for a Changing World of Work*, were for the most part included in the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

The Act provided for increased federal funds which in turn stimulated substantial increases of state and local funding. In addition to the substantial increase in funding, the Act provided new thrusts of great importance. The first of these was to provide assistance for construction, remodeling, and equipping vocational education facilities. Another new thrust was the establishment and funding of work-study programs which provided compensatory employment for qualified vocational education students in need of earnings from such employment to commence or continue their vocational programs.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was the product of a growing sensitivity to human welfare. Its emphasis was on the needs of people who required skills rather than upon the occupations which needed skilled people. Instead of the previous federal legislation focus on occupational categories as parameters of federally supported vocational education, the 1963 Act emphasised the employment-oriented educational needs of various population groups.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 defined vocational education for business and office occupations as follows:

> This program is for persons over 14 years of age who have the ability to profit from instruction. Its purpose is initial preparation, refresher training, and/or upgrading of individuals leading to employment and advancement in office careers.

Groups served by the Act included secondary school students, youth and adults with special problems, youth and adults who had completed or left high school, youth and adults unemployed or at work, and teachers of office education.

For purposes of the Act, business and office occupations were defined as follows:

> "Business and office occupations" means those occupations pursued by individuals in public or private enterprise or organizations which are related to the facilitating function of the office and includes such activities as recording and retrieval of data, supervision and coordination of office activities, internal and external communication, and reporting of information.

1968—The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was greatly strengthened and significantly extended by the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, implemented during the school year 1969–70. While continuing practically all of the programs and activities already in effect, the new amendments mandated certain expenditure categories under which specified amounts or percentages of federal funds were and are allocated for specific purposes or programs. For example, high priority was given to the following:

- Programs for persons with academic, socioeconomic, and other disadvantages
- Programs for persons with physical and emotional handicaps

- Research in vocational education
- Exemplary and demonstration programs
- Consumer and homemaking programs
- Cooperative work-experience programs
- Postsecondary vocational education programs.

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 provided that federal funds appropriated under Smith-Hughes be considered as funds appropriated under the 1968 Amendments.

1972—Education Amendments of 1972. Actually, except for manpower legislation, there had been no major updating of the Vocational Education Acts since the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963. The Education Amendments of 1972 served mainly to extend the expiration dates of existing legislation to July 1, 1975. The only other meaningful way in which the 1972 Amendments affected vocational education was to provide some increased funding for postsecondary programs and to authorize funding for industrial arts programs and for the training of volunteer firemen.

1973—The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. This legislation marked the culmination of almost five years of manpower reform efforts by the Congress and the federal administration. The purpose of the law was to provide a new and up-to-date charter for manpower programs. It decentralized and decategorized numerous programs authorized under the Manpower Development and Training Acts and under Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act.

This new law largely eliminated the numerous categorical programs authorized under earlier manpower legislation. Rather than operate manpower programs project by project through separate sponsors, as had been the case, the Secretary of Labor makes block grants to about 500 local and state prime sponsors who plan and operate the manpower programs to meet local needs.

1974—Education Amendments of 1974 (PL 93-380 Career Education). This Act was notable for providing a Congressional mandate for programs for the career development of all children and youth:

> Sec. 406.(a) It is the sense of Congress that—(1) every child should, by the time he has completed secondary school, be prepared for gainful or maximum employment and for full participation in our society according to his or her ability; (2) it is the obligation of each local educational agency to provide that preparation for all children (including handicapped children and all other children who are educationally disadvantaged) within the school district of such agency; and (3) each state and local educational agency should carry out a program of career education which provides every child the widest variety of career education options which are designed to prepare each child for maximum employment and participation in our society according to his or her ability.

To achieve these goals, Congress mandated the establishment of an Office of Career Education headed by a director. The legal definition of the term "career education" was spelled out as follows:

> An education process designed—
>
> 1. To increase the relationship between schools and society as a whole;
> 2. To provide opportunities for counseling, guidance, and career development for all children;
> 3. To relate the subject matter of the curriculums of schools to the needs of persons to function in society;
> 4. To extend the concept of the education process beyond the school into the area of employment and the community;
> 5. To foster flexibility in attitudes, skills, and knowledge in order to enable persons to cope with accelerating change and obsolescence;
> 6. To make education more relevant to employment and functioning in society; and
> 7. To eliminate any distinction between education for vocational purposes and general or academic education.

In addition to the establishment of the Office of Career Education, Section 406 of PL 93-380 estabished a National Advisory Council for Career Education, the public members of which were appointed by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. It also called for a national survey and assessment of career education. This assessment was done under contract by the American Institutes for Research and submitted to Congress in May 1976 by the National Advisory Council. The law also authorized the development of state plans and awarded planning grants to each state. Also authorized were discretionary grants for pilot and demonstration programs.

1976—Education Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-482, Title II). The Education Amendments of 1976, Title II, amends the Vocational Education Act of 1963, as amended. In drafting the new legislation, Congress responded to many criticisms voiced in their extensive hearings. They were especially influenced by the new General Accounting Office report on vocational education, "What Is the Role of Federal Assistance for Vocational Education?" Among the provisions of the new legislation which will probably have the most significant long-range effects on all vocational education programs, including business education, are the following mandates:

1. To improve planning in the use of all resources available for vocational education and manpower training by involvement of a wide range of agencies and individuals.
2. To overcome sex discrimination and sex stereotyping in order to provide equal educational opportunities for both sexes.
3. To provide part-time employment for needy youths.
4. To increase emphasis on accountability through federal and state evalua-

tions. Reviews will be conducted by federal review teams in at least 10 states per year analyzing strengths and weaknesses of state programs.

5. To decrease use of federal funds for state administration. After fiscal year 1979, states may not use more than 50 percent federal funds to pay for state administration costs.
6. To initiate energy education by providing funds to train miners, technicians, and environmentalists in coal mining and for training of installers of solar energy equipment.
7. To support a national center for vocational education research. Such a center will be chosen once every five years to conduct appropriate research and development on problems of national significance.
8. To establish a national coordinating committee to identify national priorities for research in vocational education, career education, and education-work research.
9. To increase authorizations for vocational education appropriations. For fiscal 1979 the authorization for vocational education passes the $1 billion mark for the first time. By fiscal year 1982, $1,485,000,000 is authorized for basic grants to states for program improvement and supportive services. In addition, $50 million for disadvantaged, $80 million for consumer and homemaking, and $25 million for planning, evaluation, and administration is authorized, making a grand total of $1,640,000,000.

In addition, Title III, Part C, of the Education Amendments of 1976 calls for state planning of career education and career development programs and provides $10 million to assist the states in this planning effort. This is in addition to the $10 million annual authorization provided for the Office of Career Education under other legislation.

Obviously, the key implementation of any legislation is whether or not the Congress and the executive branch are willing to appropriate funds at or near the authorization level. When the legislation was signed in October 1976 by President Ford, he objected to the provision for a 50 percent increase in the Office of Education's vocational education staff. Jimmy Carter said during his campaign that he would cut down federal bureaucracies. Hopefully, this campaign promise will not hold up the badly needed expansion of vocational education staff at the federal level. Unless the federal staff is expanded, it will be impossible to carry out the mandated evaluation and accountability provisions of the new legislation.

The implementation of legislation as intended by Congress may be expedited or blocked by the Executive Branch. If, for example, keeping campaign promises requires new legislation, they may not be kept. Jimmy Carter as a candidate issued a statement on vocational education in a letter dated September 27, 1976, to members of the American Vocational Association. He said he is committed to a comprehensive system of career and vocational education and that vocational education must be made available to all persons whether they live in the inner city, in the suburbs, or in sparsely populated areas.

Candidate Carter stated he would propose the following actions:

1. Develop a special cabinet level Department of Education.
2. Provide sufficient funding of comprehensive vocational education to meet the needs of youth and adults in every community.
3. Assure increased accountability to see to it that federal dollars spent on vocational education are achieving their goal.
4. Increase emphasis on grass roots decision making and encourage citizen involvement in design, implementation, and evaluation of vocational and career education programs.

Probably the most significant and far reaching of the Carter proposals is the creation of a cabinet level Department of Education. Such a department could bring together many government agencies, commissions, councils, and bureaus that are engaged in education and training for employment programs and are now scattered all over Washington.

1977—Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. On August 5, 1977, the President signed into law the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) (P.L. 95-93). This legislation provides authority and funds for several new programs to serve needy youth and amends the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). For fiscal year 1978 (October 1, 1978, to September 30, 1979), $1 billion has been appropriated; an additional $500 million supplemental appropriation is expected to be added.

The purpose of these new programs is to immediately employ and to increase the future employability of young persons (ages 16–23). The new law seeks to coordinate and improve existing career development and employment training programs and to test new approaches to solving the employment problems of youth.

YEDPA provides funds for four distinct programs:

1. *The Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC)* provides employment in conservation and environmental projects on federal and other public lands or waters. The program is to be managed by the U.S. Departments of Interior and Agriculture through interagency agreements. Young persons ages 16–23 will be employed for a maximum period of 12 months. Arrangements will be made for academic credit to be awarded by educational institutions based on competencies developed through these projects.
2. *Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP)* is a pilot program designed to test the effects of year-round structured work experience on school completion. Funds for these pilot projects will be awarded on a competitive basis to prime sponsors. More than 270 preliminary applications were submitted by prime sponsors seeking a part of the $115 million appropriated under this Title.
3. *Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP)* is designed to provide jobs, work experience, and skill training in community conservation and improvement projects. Emphasis is placed on unemployed, out-of-school youth ages 16–19. In-school youth may be

served if the project's sponsor can show how the training and work experience is to be coordinated with school-related programs such as cooperative education. Projects must permit in-school youth opportunities to coordinate their work experience with classroom instruction to receive appropriate credit from the educational institution.

4. *Youth Employment and Training Programs (YETP)*, a program for unemployed, underemployed, and in-school youth ages 16–21 (in special instances, in-school youth ages 14 and 15 may be included), is designed to provide a broad range of employment and training services. Participating youth will be provided necessary training and supportive services to secure unsubsidized employment in the public and private sectors. The broad range of training and supportive services includes occupational counseling, school to work transition, basic literacy, high school equivalency, on-the-job training, job development, and placement. All programs under this Title must provide for coordination with local educational agencies, postsecondary schools, business, labor, and community-based organizations, other youth programs, apprenticeship training, and the public employment service system.

At first glance, this new legislation seems to offer almost limitless potential to solve the problems of youth unemployment in this country. The $1.5 billion annual outlay is more than twice the amount Congress has appropriated any one year for vocational education. However, when the $1.5 billion outlay is compared to the need, it represents only about $50 per youth ages 14 to 21, or about $600 for each unemployed youth in this country. With these funds, only about a quarter of a million full-time minimum wage jobs can be created for youth, even if supplemental services and overhead are kept to a minimum. At this rate, only 10 percent of jobless youth would be reached.

Although the YEDPA should make an impact, it cannot be seen, under its present structure, as a catalyst for major institutional reform. The Department of Labor has said it will utilize existing delivery systems for youth employment training but, at the same time, will seek new and different ways of delivering essential employment and training services.

The objectives of the YEDPA are very complex. Many target groups are to be served, including in-school youth, out-of-school youth, and the economically disadvantaged as well as the nondisadvantaged. A variety of approaches will be explored, including residential and nonresidential conservation work on public lands, work in community improvement projects, work training plus comprehensive support services for career development, subsidies to provide jobs and training through profit-making employers, and opportunities for youth under the jurisdiction of the criminal justice system.

The diversity of programs combined with a complex method of distributing the funds requires a heavy administrative burden. The major administrative responsibility for the new programs is vested in CETA prime sponsors. Vocational educators should actively seek involvement, because Section 343 of the legislation requires that not less than 22 percent of the funds allocated must be used for programs for in-school youth. These programs are to be carried out pursuant to agreements between prime sponsors and local educational agencies. These linkage agreements may be financial or not. Local education agencies are encouraged to use other delivery systems in the area that can effectively provide the types of activities needed to serve the in-school target population.

The YEDPA legislation contains many provisions for close cooperation between educational institutions and the Department of Labor affiliates. For example, Section 804 of the Youth Adult Conservation Corps component states that "suitable arrangements for academic credits may be awarded by educational institutions and agencies for competencies derived from work experiences." There is also provision under the Youth Community Conservation Improvement Project's section to provide for "plans to coordinate training and work experience with school-related programs, including the awarding of academic credit."

Ernest G. Green, Assistant Secretary of Labor for Employment and Training, has spelled out a list of general principles and assumptions which he says are central to the design and implementation of the YEDPA:

1. *Knowledge development is a primary aim of the new youth program.* An effort must be made to try out promising ideas, to support innovations, and to assess performance.
2. *The content and quality of work experience must be improved.* Job creation and work experience will remain the major elements of the new youth efforts.
3. *Youth participation should be emphasized.* The YEDPA is based on the premise that our nation's youth are an underdeveloped resource. Youth should be involved in every stage of design, implementation, and administration of the programs.
4. *Resources should go to those in greatest need.* Emphasis must be on helping persons who cannot make it on their own. All participants must meet designated income and eligibility criteria.
5. *Substitution must be avoided.* Existing youth resources must not be diverted to other purposes while these new funds supplant them.
6. *Overhead must be minimized.* Although quality programs demand good administration, supervision, and supportive services, existing administrative structures should be utilized to avoid waste.
7. *The new youth programs are not the cutting edge for institutional change.* YEDPA is seen as a way to provide knowledge for decisions regarding institutional change. It is seen as a way to make education and manpower groups sit down and talk together about their problems, progress, and aims in dealing with youth.
8. *Emphasis must be placed on approaches and delivery agents of demonstrated merit.* Funds will be committed based on the significance of the ideas to be tested and who can best do the tests.
9. *The development of a separate employment and training delivery system*

for youth is not encouraged. The future of youth efforts should be left to Congress when it has the results of the new initiatives. A primary aim is to assess nationally and locally what is occurring and to seek reasonable coordination among these activities.

10. *The new youth programs are not permanent.* The YEDPA authorizes all programs for one year except the Young Adult Conservation Corps which is authorized for three years.

It is anticipated that by the end of fiscal 1979 Congress will have assessed the preliminary results of these new initiatives and will have made a determination about the future of youth programs. In all likelihood, resources for career development, employment, and training for youth will be expanded. The focus and delivery systems are yet to be decided. Business educators who want to influence the future direction of job training programs for youth should become actively involved now!

BUSINESS EDUCATION MUST PLAN FOR THE FUTURE

Society's hopes for the future depend on education. The more than 60 million young people who are enrolled in our nation's schools and colleges assume that the education they are receiving will benefit them in the future. Good planning is essential if education is to expand its efforts to break down the artificial distinction between school and work, school and the real world.

Until recent years, America's great abundance of natural resources and material wealth allowed us the luxury of continued growth without efficient planning. Comprehensive planning for education in the past did not seem necessary. Vocational education, including business education, today finds itself in competition for funds with many other human resources development programs. Scarcity of educational resources has placed great emphasis on comprehensive planning.

The central purpose of planning for vocational education is to provide an opportunity for policy makers to identify the needs of people and to formulate comprehensive plans for meeting those needs while, at the same time, providing for maximum benefits from resources invested. Vocational education planning is a continuous process through which courses of action and bases for decisions are determined in advance. To put it simply: planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and who does it. The planning process simply seeks to answer, Where are we? Where do we want to go? How do we get there? Whom do we involve? How do we know if we made it?

Vocational education, as the component of our educational system which provides training designed to prepare individuals for gainful employment in occupations generally requiring less than a baccalaureate or higher degree, must be alert to job market needs of the present and foreseeable future. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 as amended (PL 90-576) called for comprehensive long-range planning based on needs assessment through a state plan containing an annual and a five-year plan. The state plan mechanism, in theory, required state vocational education agencies to assess needs, establish priorities, and allocate resources based on these needs and priorities. Many states concentrated on meeting just the literal requirements of the law. As a result, their state plans were merely compliance documents.

The National Advisory Council on Vocational Education (NACVE) has been concerned that the state planning mechanism be more than compliance with federal rules and regulations. NACVE, in its testimony on vocational education legislation to Congress, emphasized the importance of continuous evaluation if the state planning process is to be effective. NACVE called for evaluation on three levels:

1. State vocational education agency self-evaluation of the annual plan update and long-range plan revisions
2. U.S. Office of Education (USOE) review and evaluation of the long-range plan against legislative intent and national priorities
3. Independent and objective evaluation by state advisory councils representative of business, industry, labor, and community leaders who know the needs and whether these needs are met.

Systems approach to planning. The systems approach to planning has been utilized extensively by business and government in recent years. It has been adapted to a limited extent in educational planning. Advocates of the systems approach feel that any system, whether it be a business or an educational enterprise, is comprised of many interacting elements. The behavior of these interacting elements can best be understood through analysis of the entire system. USOE has attempted to stimulate the utilization of the systems approach and to make the state plan for vocational education a true planning document. Under a grant from USOE, the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education has provided technical assistance to 30 other states to help them install a management by objectives (MBO) system which was developed after studying various management systems operated by business and industry. The system makes use of the various components of management information systems and related that to planning, budgeting, and evaluation. Relating vocational education programs to the anticipated job needs of business and industry has been one of the most difficult components of long-range planning.

The state of Missouri utilized the general systems approach as a tool for planning and managing vocational education. A statewide task force entitled TASK FORCE 1990, composed of persons from government, business, industry, and education, was established by the Missouri State Board for Vocational Education and charged with the various responsibilities for delineating goals and objectives leading to the development of a systems approach for long-range planning in vocational education in the state of Missouri. A research team at the University of Missouri-Columbia served as the research arm of TASK FORCE 1990. The team generated a data base, assisted in interpreting the data generated, and provided alternative proposals from which TASK FORCE 1990 synthesized an administrative management plan and made recommendations for future growth of vocational education through 1990.

About a dozen states have developed sophisticated occupational training information systems. Washington, through its planning system, is relating vocational education funding policies to manpower requirements. The state is enforcing the requirement that state and federal vocational education funds will go only to local programs that prepare individuals for occupations showing a high demand. Florida has also made significant progress in its planning system through an occupational information delivery system which works closely with other government agencies to collect and project job openings.

An indispensable document for vocational education planners is the 1976–77 edition of *Occupational Outlook Handbook* released earlier this year by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* predicts from a national point of view what the labor market will look like through 1985. Projections concerning occupations and employment are based on several fundamental assumptions: the institutional framework of the U.S. economy will not change radically; current social, technological, and scientific trends will continue, including values placed on work, education, income, and leisure; the economy will gradually recover from our high unemployment levels of the mid-1970's; and trends in occupational structures of industries will not be altered radically. Total employment in the United States is expected to increase by about 20 percent between 1974 and 1985, from 85.9 million to 103.4 million.

Through the mid-1980's, the Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts a continuation of the rapid growth of service and white-collar occupations, a slower growth of blue-collar occupations, and a further decline in the number of farm workers. There will be a growing demand for people in the communications and information processing field. The slower than average growth of blue-collar and farm workers reflects the expanding use of automation and other labor-saving devices in our nation's industries and the relatively slow growth of goods-producing industries.

The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* is a useful and essential tool for business educators at all levels in planning for their future programs if supplemented with local and state data. Even classroom teachers in business education who may often feel far removed from the problems of long-range planning can benefit from the Handbook. It provides a thorough description of the nature of work, places of employment, qualifications needed, earnings and working conditions, and sources of additional information on more than 850 occupations and 35 industries.

Planning for vocational education has become increasingly sophisticated since 1968. The new federal vocational education legislation calls for major refinements in the planning process and the involvement of many groups. Much more emphasis is placed on local vocational education planning. More appropriate employment data will be required in the development of local vocational education plans. Planning processes will improve and will play a more important role in the decision-making processes that affect business education at all levels.

Future impact of federal legislation on business education. Assuming that the best way to predict the future is to study the past, then it can be stated with considerable confidence that business and office education will continue to benefit from federal legislation. For the foreseeable future, Congress will continue categorical aid for vocational education and other specialized training programs to develop skilled manpower. There will be continued efforts by Congress to reduce unemployment through job creation and training. They will seek to reduce welfare rolls and provide training programs leading to jobs for the disadvantaged and handicapped.

The image of business education will continue to improve as more business educators become active promoters of program improvement through professional groups such as the National Business Education Association. The involvement of business, industry, labor, and community groups in planning and evaluating business education will increase. State and local leadership will continue to improve, as all states have professional business educators in leadership positions. Business educators will become increasingly involved in career development programs at all levels. The working relationship between business educators, career guidance, counseling, and placement personnel will continue to expand and improve.

The most rapid expansion in business education will occur at the adult level. This expansion will be brought on by mid-career changes, the need for retraining and upgrading office personnel, the entry of more women into the labor market, and the increased number of adults desiring further education.

Business educators will play a leading role in eliminating sex-bias and sex-role stereotyping in business and office occupations. Increased emphasis will be placed on training office workers in languages other than English. Business educators will develop and implement programs to train entrepreneurs and small business owners. A new emphasis on consumer education will feature improved living skills, product analysis, and product service.

If federal legislation in the future is to have such positive effects on business education, more business educators must be actively involved in its development and promulgation. Business educators must support their professional organizations in increased numbers and become active advocates of federal legislation that will continue to improve and expand business education in the future.

PART II

Administrative and Supervisory Responsibilities

CHAPTER 14

Staff Selection, Growth, and Evaluation

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The success of any group depends almost entirely on the contributions of each individual in the group. An academic group may have strong leadership and a few strong contributing members, but even one noncontributing member can seriously affect the total output of the group.

In most educational situations it is extremely important that the best qualified person among the applicants be chosen for a position. It is sometimes very difficult and always unpleasant to dismiss a staff member, and in some organizations it is necessary to "live with mistakes" in selection as long as the person wants to stay.

Selection is the key to a successful organization. If the right person is chosen in the beginning, professional growth and evaluation will become a mere formality.

KNOW WHAT YOU NEED AND WANT

In many instances, specific minimum requirements may be established by the state, the school system, or other organization. These requirements may include: a specific degree at the bachelor's, master's, or doctoral level; a specific amount of business experience; a specific amount of teaching experience; a college major in a specific area; a sequence of qualifying courses related to the position; and other types of experience and background.

The geographical location of the employing organization is very important to some employees and their spouses. Some individuals prefer to live in small towns, while others prefer to live in large cities. Some prefer to live in particular sections of the United States, and even in particular states. However, to some individuals the most important thing is the professional stature of the organization, and the geographical location becomes an insignificant part of the decision-making process. If a staff member or spouse is unhappy with the geographical location of the employing organization, the staff member cannot be expected to perform at capacity.

INDIVIDUAL STAFF NEEDS

Every individual has basic needs: recognition, opportunity for advancement, acceptance by the group, satisfactory working conditions, and others. Many books in the areas of psychology, human relations, and management discuss these needs in some detail.

The administrator must recognize that each individual has different needs and desires in the educational situation. Some teachers actually enjoy teaching four classes with the same preparation, others prefer to have four different classes, while some might prefer to have no more than two preparations. Needs of individual staff members should be considered carefully in relation to the needs of students and the needs of the organization. Obviously, in the teaching situation all teachers cannot have assignments in graduate work or methods of teaching. Neither can staff members be expected to perform effectively in all areas of teaching, research, professional activities, community service, consulting, etc. The person who desires to place major emphasis on research should be given this opportunity, if possible. On the other hand, a person who does not desire to emphasize research should be given the opportunity to emphasize teaching, service on committees in the organization, or professional activities in various areas. No staff member should be a "jack of all trades and master of none." If possible, match duties with individual choices.

Realizing that staff needs change over a period of time, some of the areas that should be considered during the initial assignment and at regular intervals include:

Teaching. What courses does the individual prefer to teach? What courses are needed as indicated by curriculum needs and student demands? What type of students does the individual prefer to work with—freshman, graduate, adult, etc.? Is the individual interested in large classes, small classes, or individual instruction?

Research. Is the staff member interested in research? What kind—pure research, research related to teaching activities, research for publication, research for individual development, or for some other purpose?

Professional activities. Is the staff member interested in belonging to professional organizations, working on committees, holding offices in professional organizations, attending meetings of professional organizations, giving speeches to various groups, or in other areas related to professional development?

Community service. Is the staff member interested in becoming involved with community organizations such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, United Fund, service clubs, or political offices?

Consulting. Is the staff member interested in working with business and governmental organizations in some area of expertise?

Working conditions. What does the staff member need in terms of secretarial help, supplies, equipment, office space, classroom supplies, and so on? It may not be possible to supply all of the wants of each staff member, but the administrator should do the best possible in all these areas based on the resources available.

The administrator should have a clear understanding concerning individual staff needs and their relationship to professional growth and evaluation. For example, which of these areas are considered as a specific part of the individual staff member's responsibility? Which of these activities are considered necessary for tenure and promotion? In other words, are these activities expected, required, demanded, or can they result in a negative effect on professional growth because the individual chooses the wrong activity in relation to the organization's requirements?

Whenever possible, assignments should be made which will promote the continued professional development of the staff member. Too often assignments are made on the basis of seniority. This practice does not follow sound management principles. Assignments should always be based on the needs of the consumers of the services provided. These consumers may be students, school systems, administrators, or others. However, whenever possible, the staff member should be permitted to do those things he most wants to do and is best qualified to do.

Administrators should recognize that all individuals are equally important in any organization. Those persons who spend untold hours serving on committees, those teaching elementary courses, those providing secretarial services, and those teaching upper-level courses or graduate courses are equally important to the total organization.

An excellent approach to assessing staff needs is to have each staff member develop in writing a list of needs every year or two. The administrator can then discuss with the staff member the reasons why some of these needs can or cannot be met. It is very important to emphasize that there are many duties that have to be performed in an organization. Wastebaskets must be emptied, reports must be completed, students must be taught, advising must be accomplished.

INSTRUCTIONAL EVALUATION

The ideal way to evaluate the instructional success of the staff member would be to evaluate the success of students 5 or 10 years after the instruction has taken place. This is done sometimes with follow-up studies asking the student and employer to evaluate success on the job. Generally, administrators are concerned with more immediate evaluation of instruction.

Skill tests. In some courses the success of instruction can be measured by an evaluation of the skill developed by the student. In skill courses such as typewriting, accounting, and business mathematics, it is relatively easy to measure student success. In general courses such as introduction to business, a standardized test or the same test can be given to the students from several different teachers and scores compared. The administrator must use the standardized test or group test results carefully because of the difference in students. One teacher could have a group of superior students, and another teacher could have a group of average students.

Student evaluations. In this day of accountability, many school systems use various evaluative instruments to permit the student to evaluate the instructor. This information is certainly useful to the instructor, and can be useful to the administrator in counseling the instructor. For example, if a number of students say that they cannot understand the objectives of the course, the instructor speaks too softly, or there should be more student activity and less lecture, the administrator and the teacher can discuss ways to improve the instructor's teaching success.

If there are no formal student evaluations, the administrator should recommend to each instructor that he frequently ask for anonymous comments on his course. These comments can be structured with very specific questions, or they can be unstructured by simply asking, "What can I do to improve my teaching of this course in the future?" One student can be asked to place these unsigned comments in a sealed envelope and deliver them to a specified office where they will be held until after the grades have been turned in. This practice encourages the students to be honest in their comments, and the instructor should make use of the comments to change teaching practices. The administrator should not read these student comments unless the instructor wishes him to do so. In the United States, academic freedom should be protected because there is no specific or "perfect" way to teach any particular course.

Peer evaluation. Teachers should be encouraged to visit one another on a formal or informal basis. In those cases where teachers are being considered for tenure, formal evaluation by their peers should be made. In other situations, teachers should be encouraged to visit one another and discuss teaching practices on an informal basis.

Administrator evaluation. Some administrators visit classrooms on a regular basis. Using a continuation of the student teaching situation, a supervisor may visit the teacher and make suggestions for improvement of teaching practices. This can be done on a very informal basis or formally by having the administrator write a detailed letter to the staff member making suggestions for improvement. Written communications form a structure for future evaluation of each staff member's work, attitude towards change, professional growth, and so forth.

Instructional evaluation is difficult, to say the least, because all teachers are different. Any type of evaluation must recognize the right of a teacher to teach the class in a particular way. The major exception to this would be if the wrong knowledges and facts were being presented in the classroom.

Teachers are like speakers. Some speakers can give an excellent speech without any notes whatsoever; others need a few notes; others need detailed notes; and some speakers must have completely written preparation in order to make an effective presentation. Some type of a lesson plan is useful, but a specific format should not be required for all teachers. In all instructional evaluation, it is important that the administrator convince the staff member that the evaluation is to help improve teaching and not to give demerits.

ORIENTATION OF NEW STAFF MEMBERS

In order to develop successful and satisfied staff members, a well-prepared orientation program for each new staff member should be planned. Some organizations develop a handbook for new staff members; others assign an experienced staff member to orient the new employee. Still others have a planned program for an hour, or a day or two. Of course, some just let the new employee stumble along.

However the administrator decides to orient new staff members, the following areas should be given consideration:

Who you should know. Sometimes meetings are held during which a new staff member can be introduced to those in the organization. In some cases a list of people in the organization is developed.

Where to get it. Staff members need supplies and services from time to time. They need to know how to gain access to the use of the computer if one is available. They need to know the procedures for using the library, where to eat lunch, where to obtain first aid, where to secure audiovisual services, how to use the test scoring machine, and how to make use of other services that may be available.

Rules and regulations. Every organization must have rules and regulations if it is to operate effectively. Sometimes these rules and regulations are printed, but they should be explained to the new staff member. Rules that involve the safety of the students and other members of the organization should be stressed frequently. It is important to emphasize that classes be started and ended on time. All classes should be met by a qualified instructor. The staff member should be informed of the procedures to use in case illness or some other reason makes it necessary to miss a class. In other words, the individual must be given responsibility and told how to assume that responsibility.

Fringe benefits. New staff members should have information concerning retirement, health insurance, life insurance, salaries, recreational opportunities, and other employee benefits. Sometimes these fringe benefits are the key to maintaining and retaining a satisfied staff member.

Programs. Each new staff member should become well acquainted with the purpose of the organization. For example, a college department may be involved mainly in the education of teachers in a specific area. A state department may be involved in the development of programs throughout the state. The city department of business education may be involved in providing instructional supervision and equipment for schools.

The new staff member should have knowledge concerning all of the programs in the organization. This permits the staff member to relate to all functions of the organization. It makes it possible to advise students effectively and to participate in public relations for the organization. The new staff member can become more effective in a shorter period of time and there will be fewer misunderstandings and less overlap of what is being done by someone else.

STAFF EVALUATION FOR PROMOTION

Most, if not all, individual staff members are interested in being promoted during their careers. The administrator should determine just how far each person wishes to be promoted in the organization. The staff member must understand the qualifications for promotion. Promotion policies for any organization should be set forth clearly in writing, if possible. Today various government organizations require that all persons be given an equal opportunity for promotion. These government regulations should be reviewed frequently.

Some organizations define the requirements for promotion in percentages, for example, 35 percent on research, 25 percent on teaching, and 10 percent on professional contributions, and so forth. Some of the areas that should be considered for promotion are:

Completed research and writing. Many organizations place a strong emphasis in the area of publications. Certainly publications are important, but it would be impossible for all staff members to publish extensively, because there are not enough professional periodicals to publish that many articles. Consideration should be given to research that is accomplished but not published for one reason or another.

Classroom teaching effectiveness. Success in the classroom is probably the most difficult area to measure quantitatively. Methods that can be considered for use are peer-group evaluation, student evaluation, committee evaluation, administrative evaluation, and self-appraisal.

Professional contributions. Every professional person should contribute some time and effort to the betterment of the profession. Consideration may be given to offices held in professional organizations, speeches given to professional groups, and other work of a professional nature.

Contributions to the community and society. The success of all organizations depends on service to the community and society in general. The amount of emphasis placed on this area for possible promotion varies considerably among organizations. Consideration could be given to membership in service organizations, activities in religious organizations, and other activities generally of a nonpaid nature. Each individual should be expected to serve the community in some fashion.

Interaction with students. Teachers should be expected to spend time with students outside the classroom. In some cases, it is necessary to require specific office hours when teachers are available to help students.

SUMMARY

The administrator who carefully defines the qualifications for a position and finds the individual who has these qualifications will have a successful and satisfied staff member. Selection is the key to successful administration. Of course, after the individual has been selected for a position, the administrator must nurture individual growth with effective communications concerning all facets of the working situation.

The successful administrator recognizes individual staff needs such as teaching preferences, research preferences, professional activities, community service, consulting, and working conditions. The administrator should be a teacher and use instructional evaluation to assist the individual in becoming a more successful teacher or staff member. Instructional evaluation techniques that may be used include skill tests, student evaluations, peer evaluations, and administrator evaluations.

An orientation program for all new staff members should be developed. This orientation program should include who to know, where to get service, rules and regulations, fringe benefits, and programs of the department or organization.

Requirements for promotion should be communicated to each staff member. Some areas that might be considered for promotion are completed research and writing, classroom teaching effectiveness, professional contributions, contributions to the community and society, and interaction with students.

Above all, the administrator should be an understanding human being. It is obvious that each individual cannot give an equal amount of time to all areas required for promotion or tenure. All individuals are equal in one respect; each has 24 hours a day. The question is how the time should be spent. Some desire to spend more time in research and writing; others wish to spend time advising and helping students; others emphasize professional contributions; and some desire to spend more time teaching. Insofar as possible, treat each staff member as an individual and your organization will be more successful.

CHAPTER 15

Human Skills and Group Dynamics

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The contents of this chapter represent the writer's observations and practical approaches in making the best uses of human skills and group dynamics within a business education department over the past 13 years. From a time when the business education major was included in the Department of Economics with only one business teacher, 44 business education majors, and one classroom that was used for all courses taught in business education, the present Department of Office Administration and Business Education at the University of Wisconsin—Eau Claire consists of 15 full-time faculty and over 400 majors. Program offerings now include three majors in business education, three majors in office administration, two master's degree programs, and a specialist degree program, and there are seven classrooms, three laboratories, and two resource areas.

CHAIRMAN/SUPERVISOR'S ROLE

The chairman of a department or any first-line supervisor has one of the most interesting and challenging administrative roles in the management hierarchy. A chairman has the best of two worlds. First, the chairman has many of the same classroom problems, frustrations, and rewards as those experienced by fellow faculty members. Second, as chairman, the individual has an opportunity to serve in a leadership role.

The position of chairman is one of the most challenging since decisions made affect faculty members who are generally located in the same area of a building. Therefore, there is no opportunity to hide or avoid people being affected by decisions made by the chairman. Contrast this to the dean of the school in which the business education program is housed, or the dean's relationship to the vice-chancellor, president, or other administrators of the university. Individuals at these levels are physically separated by floors in a building or by buildings.

THE TEACHING STAFF

As a chairman, there is a tendency to employ individuals as faculty members who have personal characteristics, interests, teaching philosophies, and backgrounds similar to those of the chairman. This situation should be avoided, as it tends to narrow the scope of a program and will eventually stifle any growth.

Basically, there are two types of successful business education teachers. The first includes those who are innovators, creators, and developers of new programs, new methods, and procedures. Next there are business educators who are excellent classroom teachers and can apply the ideas of those who create and develop new concepts and procedures. Unfortunately, the business education teacher who has both traits is not a common commodity.

Thus, in building a strong business education program, the chairman and fellow department members must seek out individuals who will provide an appropriate mix. There must be innovators and practitioners representing the range of subject matter areas in business education, a variety of teaching philosophies, a cross section of personality traits, and a commitment to grow professionally.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

It is critical that new faculty members have a select or special contribution to make in some area of the program. For example, it may be an in-depth background in a particular subject matter area or a characteristic that is not common among the existing faculty.

There are a number of things that can be done to ensure continued professional growth by the staff, such as:

1. All individuals within the department should teach at least one beginning class, thus minimizing the tendency to lose sight of the real world.
2. Include all faculty members in the department in the supervision of student teachers, thus giving all an opportunity to visit the environment in which their products find themselves upon graduation.
3. Give the faculty members an opportunity to contribute to the development of the programs and courses within the department. This is perhaps the most critical of all things to be done in the chairman's role as a supervisor.

For example, at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, we have developed departmental subject matter teams. The chairman delegates the authority for the team coordinators to expand, delete, and change courses, programs, and majors. This approach gives individuals an opportunity to grow professionally. At the same time it enriches their jobs as well as the contributions that are made to the department and to the students in our program. With this organizational arrangement, the program in business education has an opportunity to grow outside the interests and background of the person serving as chairman. If the chairman does not provide for staff input, the program will eventually die.

No one individual can carry the load of administering a department. In addition to the departmental subject matter teams, we have also established auxiliary responsibilities for faculty members in our department, again allowing the faculty members to develop areas in which they have special interests.

RECOGNIZING STAFF NEEDS/ACCOMPLISHMENTS

The department chairman must be able to identify the contributions to be made by the faculty members within the program. Faculty members will then be much more enthusiastic about carrying out project team assignments or auxiliary responsibilities.

Since the chairman is usually in the same area as the faculty members in the department, it is much easier to maintain visual contact as well as oral communication feedback; and of course, it is critical that this type of communication take place. The chairman must be available to work with teachers on an individual, small group, or large group basis—both formally and informally.

Once in the fall semester and once in the spring semester each year, our faculty members are evaluated by the students enrolled in their respective classes. Following these evaluations the chairman meets with faculty members to review the results of the evaluation. The evaluation process helps identify the faculty members' relationship to students, classroom procedures, expertise in subject matter content, and personal characteristics. Based on these evaluations, the chairman may visit classes for a firsthand observation of strengths and/or weaknesses identified by the students. It is critical that possible solutions be identified for any problems.

The evaluation process is especially valuable to teachers who have been in the department for a number of years. Don't make the mistake of evaluating nontenured faculty only. The evaluation process does for teaching what an annual checkup does for an individual's physical well-being. It is best to identify problem areas in their infancy to keep them from growing to major proportions.

Another aspect of the evaluation process is to keep track of teacher activities and involvement in professional activities. Some chairmen keep a folder for each faculty member and insert noteworthy items as the year progresses. This is a good procedure; however, it can be improved. Here is an illustration.

Each December we are required to submit to our university administration recommendations for faculty promotions, retention, tenure, and salary adjustments. The student evaluations and the notes kept in individual faculty folders serve as an excellent source for preparing recommendations. No doubt, though, there are items that have gone unnoticed. Thus, each of our faculty members submits a list of the activities that he/she has been involved in that should be included in the recommendation. This gives the chairman an opportunity to recognize additional achievements being made by the staff.

DEPARTMENTAL PHILOSOPHY

Basic program philosophy and long-term goals are updated annually to provide the faculty with direction. This is a fundamental element for continued success. In 1964 our program in business education was built around the following base:

1. There would be in-depth subject matter content built into all areas in which the individual would be certified to teach.
2. There would be an in-depth methodology program to provide the individual with the tools and techniques to teach at a variety of levels—from junior high through postsecondary.

It was recognized that many of the programs in business education at that time were skill-oriented and that most business education programs were within departments that functioned much as an island. In order to develop the two principles mentioned, we completed the following items:

1. Established a Department of Office Administration and Business Education to broaden the subject matter base of the business education program.

2. Developed a close working relationship with the faculty in the School of Business and the School of Education. (Our Department is administered by the School of Business, and our faculty members hold joint appointments in both schools.)

3. Identified courses in the Department that were of value not only to students in business education/office administration and the School of Business but also to students throughout the University. This includes such courses as Introduction to Business Data Processing, Business Communications, and Executive Profile Development. Thus, we have broadened the base of our exposure through courses categorized as part of the University's General Studies Program.

4. Provided an opportunity for vertical growth in the program by establishing a master's degree and a specialist degree. The next step, of course, is the addition of a doctorate.

5. Required that majors complete all or selected core courses in the School of Business (depending on business education emphasis) and other courses offered in business administration and accounting. Our aim was to provide those with teaching degrees the same subject matter content as those pursuing nonteaching degrees.

LONG-TERM GOALS

Once the basic philosophy has been established, long-term goals must be developed and updated on an annual basis. Each fall our department meets to review last year's goals and achievements and update and add new goals for the current year. Once again, this gives faculty members an opportunity to provide input and program direction. To ensure that these goals are pursued and finalized, they are assigned to various subject matter teams, special committees and/or individuals. Following is a list of one year's goals.

1. Develop proposal for doctorate in business education.
2. Develop proposal for undergraduate major in travel and tourism.
3. Complete review of course contents in the office administration and data processing areas.
4. Finalize slide/tape program for promotion of the business education major.
5. Review proposal for granting college credit to individuals who now have the CPS rating.
6. Develop display relating to business education and office administration.
7. Transfer vocational courses from the SCED Department into the Department of Office Administration and Business Education.
8. Publicize credit by exam procedures to vocational/technical school branch campuses, etc.
9. Complete work on revision of methods courses.
10. Establish a departmental advisory committee—or possibly one for OA and one for BE.
11. Check into the possibility of sponsoring or cosponsoring another seminar or conference on methods.
12. Revise departmental brochure.
13. Review and evaluate our graduate program—admission of students, performance in courses, oral examinations, etc.
14. Update written and oral questions for master's and specialist degrees.
15. Develop new undergraduate major in administrative services.
16. Actively involve students in the university Co-op program.
17. Have five or more students sit for the CDP exam. Actively promote it.
18. Add a 700 level course in information systems for the MBA program.

COMMUNICATIONS NETWORK

When the department grows beyond five or six members, the chairman should promote informal leadership within the department. This provides faculty members with an opportunity to let off steam, to share information with the "old-timers," and to test new ideas.

Another item that is critical for any department is to keep the faculty members posted on what is taking place. Not every piece of mail must be shared with all faculty members, but certainly selected correspondence and documents would be of interest to one or more faculty members in the program. A routine slip is an excellent way to circulate information of interest to the faculty.

Departmental meetings are also a critical tool in developing departmental relationships. Hold department meetings not on a regular basis but as they are needed. It is critical that these meetings be planned with the purpose of the meeting clearly established before it takes place.

STUDENT INPUT

Student involvement in the development of the business education program is an untapped resource in many curriculums. Give students an opportunity to participate in departmental meetings either as observers or as elected or appointed representatives of the students majoring in the business education program. As a program grows, hold at least one meeting each session to provide an opportunity for all the faculty and students in the program to discuss course changes and new program and procedures, to meet new faculty members, and to obtain suggestions from students and faculty on ways to improve the program.

Student organizations are excellent sounding boards for student input into program development. It also gives faculty members and the chairman an opportunity to work with students on an informal out-of-the-classroom basis to identify new programs, areas where changes may be needed, and strengths of a program.

PARENTAL INPUT

The department chairman should provide an opportunity for parental input. This can be accomplished in meetings where parents and their son(s)/daughter(s) are given an overview of the programs available, background information, and an opportunity to ask questions. Parents are also excellent resource persons to be called upon to share their skills and knowledge in classroom presentations.

SUMMARY

The role of department chairman is a challenging and rewarding experience. In developing and maintaining a quality business education program, the faculty is the key. Bringing together the right faculty mix, getting the faculty involved in program development, identifying departmental philosophies and goals, and drawing upon other resources to include students, parents, and administrators are all part of the chairman's responsibilities.

The chairman must be tough-minded and fair in making decisions affecting faculty members. At times the chairman must take stands that are counter to the views of the staff. If the chairman has given the faculty members an opportunity to provide input and at the same time has provided the reasons why a decision has been made, the faculty will respect the chairman's decision.

The chairman should never forget that an "our/we" approach and not an "I/my" approach is a key to utilizing human skills and developing effective group dynamics. *Our* goal is to get the job done. *We* can do it better!

CHAPTER 16

The Supervisor/Administrator as a Leader and Facilitator

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The best way to determine if a person is a good leader is to watch him or her lead. To be effective as a leader, a person must:

Initiate action.
Give orders that will be obeyed.
Use established channels.
Know and follow the rules and customs of the group.
Maintain discipline.
Listen to subordinates.
Respond to the needs of subordinates.
Help subordinates.

The ultimate *test of leadership* is, of course, effectiveness in getting a job done.

TECHNIQUES FOR WORKING EFFECTIVELY WITH OTHERS

The role of a supervisor/administrator as an education leader is not always an easy one. The effective supervisor/administrator must be keenly aware of the diversity of thought on many issues that prevail among the members of the staff. Furthermore, every supervisor/administrator must be conscious of the individual frustrations and feelings of the staff and of the need to move slowly in pursuit of any perceived goals. The effective leader is able to unleash the creative effort of those he leads and unite their effort toward a common objective or good.

There are a number of operational principles one should follow in order to be effective as a leader. The following are cited as some of the most imperative:

Ducking a problem. Never duck a problem, it will only get worse.

Delegate. The old saying, "if you want something done right, do it yourself," is bad advice. It should be changed to "if you want something done right, delegate." This philosophy underscores the leader's faith in the competencies of the staff.

Trust. The successful supervisor/administrator trusts subordinates to do the work for which they were hired. In this way there will be time for the supervisory/administrator to carry out the tasks for which he/she was employed. A supervisor/administrator who tries to do everything without the help of subordinates is doomed to failure because of lack of attention to the most important aspect of his/her job—supervision and management.

Compliment. Compliment, to be sure, but avoid obvious flattery. Learn the difference. Telling a homely girl that she is pretty is flattery; it is false, and she will recognize it as such. Remarking that her hair style is attractive, if true, is a genuine compliment—a compliment she will not only believe but also appreciate.

Don't confuse activity with results. It may seem like a strange admonition, but *don't overwork.* The overworked executive frequently devotes a great deal of time to trivial routine and a small amount to creative work. To ease the overworked condition, call in staff and:

Ask them, "What would you do?"
Give them their head.
Set realistic deadlines.
Delegate authority with responsibility.
Find motivation.
Make instructions fully understood.

Don't confuse effort with achievement. At the end of the day avoid lugging home a briefcase full of problems to be worked on during the evening. Furthermore, find time during the course of each day to put your feet up on your desk and consider the broader aspects of your job—whatever good and useful that might come to mind.

Listen. Effective listening is hard work. Listen to every statement for facts and feelings. You may have to reorganize the biases or, perhaps, the frame of reference, but try to remember the speaker's level of authority and wishes. Everyone seeks understanding—with or without agreement. There is no better way of providing understanding than through sensitive listening.

Search for hidden talent. In delegating tasks to subordinates, set small goals to help them gain confidence by doing the job promptly and well. If you are not entirely satisfied, keep criticism private.

In the assignment of tasks, don't be misled by a job description. A job description only discloses what an employee is expected to be able to do. It does not deal with how well employees can perform a given task or the total parameters of their capabilities. The real yardstick is a well-developed statement of performance standards. Don't be ambiguous when assessing an employee's work against these standards.

Look for and fully use individual talents. To neglect or waste the talents of your staff is as criminal as the misuse of funds or equipment. Be alert to hidden talents and interests that can be utilized; self-satisfaction is likely to result.

Aim to direct the efforts of your staff toward mutually arrived at goals and remember, always—there is strength in unity.

Personal insecurity. Security—here job security—is a basic human need. Daily rumors fly in many organizations as to possible replacements and concerning "certain plans." A basic cause of concern or fear is, in reality, fear of change.

Very often, the most conscientious members of a staff are those most apprehensive of change. They have toiled hardest to make the "old system" work smoothly, so the prospect of a "new system" comes as a major shock. The supervisor/administrator must find ways to relieve these fears and to convince the staff that change is not the grim reaper so often portrayed but a source of benefit for everyone.

The need for reassurance. Don't be sure that the older members of your staff are content in their work. The longer an employee stays on a job, the greater is the need for periodic reassurance that he or she is doing the job well. What may appear as extreme self-confidence or self-sufficiency may only serve to camouflage true feelings. Put yourself, occasionally, in that employee's place. Ask yourself the following questions:

Does this member of my staff still enjoy his/her work assignment?

Does he/she have reason to be bored and unhappy with the jobs as it is presently constituted?

Is he/she proud of the position on the staff and his/her contribution to the program?

Is this staff member tired of the "same old rut"?

Is there concern of being jarred out of a rut?

Or, is there concern of getting trapped in one?

THE SUPERVISOR/ADMINISTRATOR AS A CHANGE AGENT

A variety of forces are apt to play a role in bringing about program change. These range from changes in educational and social values envisioned by "scholars" to prods from local community groups and forays by state and national lawmakers and educational leaders. The effective supervisor/administrator must avoid the temptation to program changes that appeal only to state and federal patterns of funding. This is not to suggest that these funding opportunities be ignored but, rather, be considered in reference to the total program objectives. It is the local supervisor/administrator and staff who are best able to identify the full scope of the program's needs. In this assessment, the local staff must also be fully cognizant of manpower needs; the changing nature of jobs; the effect of technology and sophistication on content; local, state, and national (and international) trends and economic considerations; and certainly, changing societal values as they may affect educational institutions. Only then can outside sources of financial assistance be placed in proper perspective.

The role of change agent necessitates that the supervisor/administrator be clear of vision and perspective with respect to the total needs of the program. The key to effective innovation and change is for the supervisor/administrator to help his/her staff focus on those specific timely steps that will enhance the program's total effectiveness. Innovations contemplated, furthermore, must seem to the staff as being more productive than what has been done in the past. Visits to other educational institutions, interaction with the business community, and broad participation in professional education organizations and business groups can have a marked effect on the staff's horizons.

Keeping the business education staff alert about needed change is an ongoing responsibility. The secret, of course, is to avoid letting this responsibility become a periodic endeavor. The most effective practice is to build program assessment and the consideration of needed change into the staff's annual program of work. If the need for program innovation and change is viewed in any other way, the administrator will encounter the need for major overhauls that are likely to be traumatic experiences. Furthermore, sporadic change is apt to result in marked peaks and troughs between the periods of review. Obviously, too, in today's climate for change, the business supervisor/administrator must set annual priorities and, with the help of the staff, arrive at achievable goals.

Resultant staff assignments must be seen as opportunities for the administrator and staff to expand their educational horizons, their effectiveness to students, and their professional growth. The delegated tasks should concentrate on problems that transcend the individual classroom and arrive at more mutually satisfying outcomes as a result of staff interaction. The annual program of work should provide opportunities for the staff to "get things done" expeditiously as a result of group commitment and democratic action. The end result, certainly, should be to strengthen the underlying purposes of the program and its benefits to students. The supervisor/administrator and others must remember that instructional excellence in the classroom is where the "water meets the wheel." Any change must then be geared toward this ultimate goal.

THE STATE SUPERVISORY STAFF

Obviously, members of the state education department can carry on a variety of activities that will assist local supervisors/administrators in performing their responsibilities as leaders and change agents. Some major areas where state supervisory personnel can help to effect desirable change include:

1. Studying statewide and local curriculum offerings as they relate to future needs
2. Planning and preparing modern curriculum guides
3. Planning and conducting teacher conferences directed to the consideration of new educational practices, innovations, and instructional learning media

4. Assisting local school administrators and architects in the planning of new school facilities
5. Fostering "get-togethers" by teachers of neighboring school systems for their mutual growth
6. Serving on local business education program survey teams
7. Carrying on appropriate research activities at the state level and disseminating the results to local schools
8. Providing assistance to teachers engaged in business education research
9. Working with advisory councils or committees to determine the most appropriate program for their area
10. Planning, promoting, and supporting appropriate adult instructional programs
11. Working with teacher-preparatory institutions for the development of the best possible perservice and in-service teacher programs
12. Providing leadership in the business community through membership and participation in professional organizations and civic groups
13. Providing leadership in local, state, and national professional organizations through active membership and the encouragement of participation by local teachers and program administrators
14. Identifying needs for future business education research and experimentation
15. Studying business education programs and progress of other states for possible implications for the programs of your state.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF A CHANGE AGENT

An effective leader and change agent must be easily approachable and sensitive to the needs, emotions, and readiness of the staff for program change. He or she must be an oracle of imagination, resourcefulness, and concern for the staff as well as for "things possible" that will enhance the effectiveness of the business education program. The real leader must be both scholar and politician—knowledgable about trends and needs and astute in generating the enthusiasm of the staff for meeting these needs.

As Ben Hecht observed in the *Child of the Century*: "A wise man knows that he has only one enemy—himself. This is an enemy difficult to ignore and full of cunning. It assails one with doubts and fears. It always seeks to loosen and lead one away from one's goal. It is an enemy never to be forgotten but constantly outwitted."

Success is won by those who try. And where there is nothing to lose by trying—and a great deal to gain—by all means try. You must study, think, and plan for the year ahead. This is imperative if you want to move forward. Otherwise, you drift like a ship without rudder or sail. If you know what you want, start thinking about it. That is the beginning of a desire, and you are motivated to try to obtain it. Soon it becomes an all-important burning desire. So it must be with the effective leader.

CHAPTER 17

The Planning and Reporting Functions

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Program planning, budgeting systems, and reporting responsibilities for educators have been the most complex and the most disturbing of the new lines of inquiry in education. In the past, planning practices focused on the needs of an organization in which the administrator/supervisor projected forward rather conservatively from historical roots. In the present educational realm, administrators/supervisors are just now learning to state teaching objectives explicitly as they are forced under program budgeting to deal with far more subtle objectives—many of which have never before been stated explicitly.

The creation and operation of a productive system are a central responsibility of the administrator/supervisor. This implies, in effect, that the administrator/supervisor must realize the resources at his/her own disposal to achieve, as fully as possible, the goals of the system.

A structure and mechanism to provide for its maintenance and continuity must be developed if an organization is to be successful. For the most part, the public schools operate under the basic mechanism of bureaucracy as formulated by Max Weber and refined by later theorists.[1]

Administrators/supervisors are faced with the dilemma of operating under this institutionalized structure which creates a growing need for increased personal involvement at every level of staffing. In essence, no other public agency and/or private enterprise can compare with a public school for cutting across the entire spectrum of social strata, for encompassing a melting pot of diversified activities under one system, and for requiring a complete understanding of the administrative behavior by its leaders.

Today's school administrators/supervisors must be able to enact the role of corporate executive—capable of fiscal prudence, legal accountability, managerial astuteness, and salesmanship consciousness—in working relationships with the state department of education, the board of education, the schools, the publics, and the many governmental regulatory agencies. The administrator/supervisor must also serve as the plant manager. In that vein, one would be responsible for overseeing the designing, producing, packaging, and marketing of the product—education. The administrator/supervisor must be able to manage a diverse group of specialists, each of whom usually has more allegiance to his/her own specialty than to the system itself.

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[1] Weber, Max. *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization.* (Translated by A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons.) New York: Oxford University Press, 1947. pp. 56–57.

A bureaucratic structure may be required because the business tasks, coupled with restrictive amounts of money and large numbers of people, create difficulty. Yet, the sociological setting necessary to produce the intangible product requires human relations, high morale, and a sense of individual worth that can best be attained through some semblance of shared decision-making. Viable leadership will in the future include receptiveness toward innovation which minimizes dysfunctional conflict.

All school districts today face challenges for change. It is, of course, incumbent upon the leadership to influence the needed changes in the operation of the system. Sommerville implies this by an "if/then" comparison:

> If he perceives his role as that providing leadership to maintain interaction which results in the perpetuation of the present state of the institution with only superficial modifications, he will have difficulty reconciling the needs of the institution with his perceptions.[2]

In 1972, Michael Apple reported that the use of systems management procedures were in many ways similar to the development and evaluation models. The investigator suggested that systems management procedures actually provide a means of increasing certainty and control:

> It should be made clear, then, that systems approaches are not essentially neutral, nor are they performing a "scientific" function. By tending to cause its users and the other publics involved to ignore certain possible fundamental problems with schools as institutions, systems management also acts to generate and channel political sentiments supportive of the existing modes of access to knowledge and power.[3]

The administrator/supervisor must exercise leadership. It must be exercised in order for solidarity to be maintained, optimum results to be obtained, and a healthy educational climate based on trust and stability to be developed.

MODERN PLANNING PRACTICES

Modern planning practices are indeed a comprehensive undertaking. Planning is a service to decision making. It provides support and analysis in the process of selecting objectives and policies while allowing for rational consideration of the administrative action in the implementation of policies. As planning is future-oriented, it is concerned with decisions that are being made now that are going to affect the future of the organization. Systematic planning might include the following nine steps or activities: (1) objectives, (2) time, (3) finances, (4) staff, (5) facilities, (6) instructional media, (7) need for feedback, (8) assessing achievements, and (9) establishing priorities.

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[2] Sommerville, Joseph C. "Leadership That Rocks the Boat, a Boat That Needs Rocking!" *Educational Leadership* 29:45; October 1971.

[3] Apple, Michael W. "The Adequacy of Systems Management Procedures in Education." *Journal of Educational Research* 66:15; September 1972.

Schools are basically human systems. Yet, in our management roles as administrators/supervisors, we tend to become so thoroughly engrossed in coping with the daily problems that we react much as machines—machines, however, with emotions—a habit which in many cases has a devastating effect upon fellow workers.

Traditionally, educational institutions have placed primary emphasis on governmental and fiduciary accounting because of their responsibility to funding entities. Educational institutions must show an analysis and justification in the implementation and utilization of funds. The essential method to achieve this goal would be to alter and apply managerial accounting techniques, in addition to existing systems.

In the seventies, there has been a proliferation of research and literature on educational accountability. This literature ranges from simple cost-measurement models to extensive cost-effectiveness studies which attempt to measure the return on an educational investment utilizing criteria such as the social benefits that accrue to individuals and to society as a result of the educational process.

Superintendents and other top echelon administrators frequently perceive accountability systems, such as MBO (management by objectives), not only as valid methods of management but also as a means to achieve more measurable educational outcomes. The currently popular managerial devices, aimed at better accountability for school districts, have in common the elements of careful planning and critical choices. An appropriate method should be established to provide and maintain for administrators/supervisors at least two types of reliable information, namely, (1) administrative/supervisory information (policies, procedures) which inform the administrators/supervisors what they are permitted or expected to do, and (2) the operational data that enables them to formulate plans within a common frame of reference. Regardless of which managerial device a school district employs, a systematic planning process can lead to optimum results. Effective grass-roots planning can have a marked effect on the well-being of the educational system in the aggregate.

Objectives. PPBS, an acronym for planning, programming, and budgeting system, is one of the most commonly used approaches to accountability. It is very similar to management by objectives, long utilized in business and industry. PPBS is a management technique for allocating resources in a manner that maximizes benefits at reasonable costs. It provides a structured mechanism of identifying needs, planning programs, choosing among alternative courses of action, allocating and controlling resources, and evaluating outcomes. Umans describes what is new in PPBS as the emphasis upon the identification of organizational objectives and what should be done about them, the use of a multiyear program arranged to illustrate how resources are being used to attain organizational goals and objectives over an extended time (typically five years), consideration of alternative courses of action, the extensive use of quantitative analysis, and the integration of all these to achieve the best choices of decisions for the system as a whole.[4]

PPBS provides a means for answering questions of education relative to "what do I give" and "what do I receive." It identifies, however, the relationships between the product outcomes and costs for achieving the outcomes for various alternative methods and means. Furthermore, many discussions of PPBS indicate that it begins with a "systems" analysis (work breakdown structure or program structure) in order that viable alternatives may be considered, projected, and evaluated. By using a systems approach, each functioning phase of the school district's operational program is presented in detail.

For public school administrators, supervisors, and teachers who are in the positions of making decisions, PPBS provides them with a rational, output-oriented data-based framework and/or process for systematically relating educational activities to the organizational goals and objectives. PPBS affords the administrators, supervisors, and decision-makers with an explicit process for making more effective and efficient decisions about future allocations of organizational resources among alternative means for achieving program objectives. It is considered to be a tool for increasing the probability that educational objectives for students can and will be attained effectively and efficiently.

PPBES—planning, programming, budgeting, and evaluation system—is one of the most comprehensive cost models and one most often used. Although there is not standard definition, PPBES is usually thought of as "relating the output-oriented program or activities of an organization to specific resources that are then stated in terms of budget dollars."[5]

PPBES is a systems approach. Its components are interrelated and interdependent. As planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions, this provides for future action so that goals can be achieved by the most efficient means.

The delineation of a program's specific plan is programming. This, in effect, helps to assure that the plan is followed and performed according to schedule in order to eliminate inefficiencies.

Budgeting is a component of PPBES that differentiates it from other resource management models in education. Schafer defines budgeting as "the process of authorizing the use of resources to accomplish the objectives and program developed in the planning and programming process."[6] Even though budgeting is familiar to most planners, whether they are administrators or supervisors, the emphasis in PPBES budgets is placed on the isolation of the expenditures to be incurred in a particular program rather than grouping of costs into categories that will also be shared by other programs. A budget, therefore, is designed for each project by the administrator/supervisor to illustrate that "time, personnel, and materials are actually utilized by the particular program."[7]

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[4] Umans, Shelly. *The Management of Education*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1970. p. 49.

[5] Farmer, J. *Why Planning, Programming, Budgeting Systems for Higher Education?* Boulder, Col.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1970. p. 7.

The evaluation process compares results against the stated objectives and strives to determine where the waste has occurred. However, utilizing PPBES, the administrator/supervisor is able to compute cost-benefit ratios as a form of measurement and comparison.

In summary, PPBES can be identified as a technological approach to planning. It is a management technique which is an extension of PPBS that includes the evaluating process.

Time. Program Evaluation and Review Technique, commonly referred to as PERT, is a model of an estimated network of activities and events designed to provide information from which the manager can determine whether scheduled requirements will be met.[8] This enables the manager, administrator, or supervisor to determine which activities are most critical and require close scrutiny. In this way, management can evaluate operations and identify noncritical functions and inefficiencies so that resources may be utilized efficiently.

A network is the foundation of the PERT System. The network illustrates the established plans to achieve the project objectives, the interrelationship and interdependencies of the project elements, and the priorities of the elements within the plan. The network becomes a graphic representation of the project plan.

PERT enables the administrator/supervisor to preplan and identify his/her ultimate objective at the beginning of the project rather than as it progresses. It permits the administrator/supervisor to clarify the different responsibilities of the personnel; and, it enables the personnel to better realize the interrelationships of tasks and responsibilities. As an evaluation method, PERT allows the evaluator to determine if the objectives have been attained as they were stated, if they were timely, and if they were productive. To reach the end objectives and/or results, the administrator/supervisor, however, must prepare a series of tasks in some prescribed sequence and time limit as well as budgetary statements and progress reports at selected intervals.

MBO—management by objectives—is another system that has received a great deal of attention. MBO is a management system, a method of planning. Simply stated, MBO is a structure system of planning enabling the administrator/supervisor to state objectives, methods, implementation, and the evaluative criteria/measures so that performance at every level can be linked to the purposes of the school board. Browder, Atkins, and Kaya describe MBO as the system of management by objectives as a process whereby the superior and the subordinate officers in an organization jointly identify their common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him/her, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contributions of each of its members.[9] In fact, MBO leads to the more fruitful use of money because the administrator/supervisor focuses more precisely on needs. Money is expended more effectively and efficiently because the administrator/supervisor knows the purposes for which it is being used.

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[6] Schafer, M. I., editor. *PPBS Theory Application.* Gainesville: University of Florida, Florida Community Junior College Inter-Institutional Research Council, 1971. p. 10.

[7] Browder, L. H., Jr.; Atkins, W. A., Jr.; and Kaya, E. *Developing an Educationally Accountable Program.* Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973. p. 215.

[8] U.S. Army Material Command. *Engineering Design Handbook: System Analysis and Cost-Effectiveness.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Army, April 1971. passim.

MBO and PERT are not mutually exclusive. MBO is designed to help assure that both academic and program growth will occur in a project; and at the same time, that the control and accountability will improve. A primary benefit of PERT is that it is capable of monitoring and controlling a program as it progresses. Both of these managerial models are designed to provide program development and to efficiently allocate resources through more effective planning and control.

Finances. Many states have entered a critical period regarding school finance. The perennial problem is that there is not enough monies for schools, or at least never as much as the schools say they require. In fact, school expenditures have been growing faster than the economy as a whole, and school costs have escalated.

Strong competition for the tax dollar is an issue school districts are facing. Other programs such as welfare and public safety also tilt the public purse. And under our current local tax structure, all of these programs are funded by the property tax. The single largest source of revenue for education comes from the local property tax; however, every state is unique and on its own continuum.

Today's legislators are keenly aware of the political pressure. They realize that action is needed. However, few legislators and educators understand the intricacies of school aid formulas and their fiscal impacts on the various school districts. The public does not understand the problems either, because it tends to evaluate any change in the light of how a certain school district is affected.

The state disburses funds automatically to local districts on the basis of student enrollments. The districts retain control over the disbursement of funds for specific programs as well as overall matters of priority and distribution within those programs.

Allocating resources to develop more flexible and goal-oriented strategies by carrying out reviews of budget allocations are an immediate concern of administrative/supervisory personnel. Certain competencies are needed by the administrator/supervisor to conduct his/her supervision of financial resources. These tasks may include the purchasing and requisitioning of materials of instruction and equipment, accounting for school monies, maintaining an inventory of equipment and developing a replacement schedule, and assisting with planning facilities. It is the administrator/supervisor who is responsible for orchestrating the material inputs with the human inputs to the school, for monitoring the progress of the programs, and for evaluating educational outcomes in programmatic terms. Effective outcomes regarding the selection of program plans and greater benefits derived from their operation result when these costs are considered on a long-term basis.

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[9] Browder, *op. cit.*, p. 247.

The allocations of school resources is shared by a variety of publics. School authorities need to be attuned to their publics as to their responsibility due to funding restrictions. Programs are committed to operation on the basis of merit. In order to receive maximum results from available resources, there needs to be a thrust for more efficient management. Hence, one of the primary roles of an administrator or supervisor is to establish the overall limit for program expenditures and then assign allotments to the program on a priority-resource allocation basis. The school program operation, therefore, is fully determined within the parameters of the educational community.

Staff. Staff often is equated with cost alone, rather than in tandem with objectives and effectiveness, with accountability, and with effective use of time and talent. Increased effectiveness is a priority that demands attention, more so perhaps at the outset, from the standpoints of time and talent utilization rather than from the monetary viewpoint.

Staffing according to specific learning needs and program emphasis along a continuum facilitates the implementation of the performance/results concepts. Emphasizing the development of specifics from the standpoints of identification of program, learner and content continua, variable staffing patterns, and instructional area functioning descriptions helps to determine the framework and guidelines for the development of expected staff/student functioning patterns.

Each staff member's operational effectiveness is directly related to the extent his/her functioning patterns dovetail with the operational demands and forces of the program structure. If there is to be articulation and coordination in learning and instruction, the program structure must be developed in terms of an overall learning continuum, not solely in terms of content compartmentalization. The staffing patterns must be developed to coincide with this continuum structure.

All staff members working in a program are colleagues; however, they do not all have the same responsibilities or status in the group. The concerted action of the group itself, in working toward its goals, would be to define function in different and specialized ways. The idea is to have effective working groups, responsible for a particular program and responsible to some extent for monitoring the various members of the group. In this way, effective work groups quickly result in differentiation of function, and the emergence of a leader can be seen merely as a unique case of this differentiation process.

Decentralization of decision making entails decentralization of budget and expenditure decisions. By extending the scope of decision making in the schools, greater diversity, creativity, and initiative will develop in the programs. Teachers, like all other members of organizations, provide qualitatively different inputs into the running of schools. Professionalism, therefore, requires much more accountability for the outcomes of decisions made.

The degree to which a program is implemented is determined by the extent to which the staff can function effectively within the program structure and its performance demands. But, change in the program operational demands necessitates a consequent change in staff functions. A results-oriented curricular structure requires the parallel development of a performance-based staffing framework. Generally, change demands are neglected because of faculty locus on content organization and on the mechanical structuring of the program. However, effective leadership and supervision needs to be directed if the goals of the sytem are to be satisfied.

Facilities. The total process of planning for educational facilities is typically a central office responsibility—particularly when one considers projecting enrollments and needs, financing improvements, and constructing facilities. Planning for educational facilities is a task of great magnitude. A systematic means for the implementation of the building program requires the involvement of many people.[10]

Educational facility planners have stressed that the process of planning the individual school plant involves the following stages: (1) a review of the educational program, including attention to the behavior objectives to be achieved; (2) an assessment of the learning experiences and the services to be rendered, as well as the determination of quantitative requirements in terms of specific program and space needs; (3) the determination of the qualitative requirements, including the functional details of each space; (4) the preparation of written educational specifications that serve as the educator's guide to the architect; and (5) the review of architectural plans, which may require reinterpretation of the educational specifications to the architect.[11] In each stage of the process, however, it is very important that the administrator/supervisor in facility planning structure the organization to supply meaningful input by the individuals and groups concerned, which include teachers, students, and community personnel.

In the state of Maryland, the majority of the cost of school construction is borne by the state government which assumed these costs in 1971 by an Act of the General Assembly. In the past, school construction was funded by the local governments, which floated bond issues to raise the necessary monies to build schools.

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[10] Taylor, Harris A., and McIsaac, Donald N. "How PERT Works to Speed School Building Programs." *Nation's Schools* 73:46; June 1964.

[11] National Council on Schoolhouse Construction. *NCSC Guide for Planning School Plants*. East Lansing, Mich.: the Council, 1964. p. 14.

Each county school board in Maryland has limited control of the construction of schools. Each county school board may request the state to build schools in the county they represent and may present the state the recommendation regarding site, architectural plans, and the timing of specific projects. However, the state has the final authority in these matters. It also has the final approval on project cost, timing of each project, appointment of architects, and educational specifications for each building. In short, the state now determines when a school may be built and how it may be built.

When planning facilities, several questions need to be answered. They are: (1) Who will be served and in what numbers? (2) What instructional program will be offered? (3) What are the space needs? Facilities play an important role in a school district operation. They influence educational programs and have a great effect on student attitude; they should be planned to serve day students, adults, disadvantaged, and handicapped persons. However, obtaining data on future enrollments is often very difficult as well as cumbersome. School officials—whether they are using federal, state, or local dollars—are reluctant to provide excess space for future expansion. Facilities should be planned to allow for new programs, whether additional facilities are added or existing facilities are updated to meet needed changes.

The facilities should be flexible to allow for innovations, new programs, and technological changes. Modern educational techniques should be provided to include visual aids, educational TV, carrels, and other aids for individualized instruction. In short, the facilities should be planned to meet community needs rather than the interest and teaching strengths of the existing staff.

Most states require the services of an architect when planning educational facilities. The rationale is that the architects are knowledgeable about OSHA regulations, environmental considerations, fire marshal regulations, quantity and quality of lights, and numerous other requirements.

Input from local craft and/or advisory committees is important before plans are approved by the state department of education. Many members of these committees are knowledgeable tax-paying residents of the area, and their recommendations should be respected by the final decision-makers. An administrator/supervisor should utilize the talents of the educational community, for their input may be invaluable.

In summary, the Commission on Building of the American Association of School Administrations declared that ". . . to serve its function well, to meet the educational expectancies of its students and the community, to be truly great, the school building must be more than a container for the educational program."[12] The Commission further stressed that the school building should be not only a functional servant of the educational program, but also a friendly, attractive, and stimulating place—imparting a feeling of security and a sense of pride to all whom it serves.[13] Brick and mortar alone do not insure an effective program. Adequate space and equipment, combined with good teaching, are essential ingredients of any educational program.

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[12] Commission on School Building. *Schools for America.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1967. p. 35.

Instructional media. The administrator/supervisor has the immediate, direct, and continuing responsibility to make available instructional media that will best enable students to learn and find success in their chosen careers. Leadership needs to be exerted by the administrator/supervisor in establishing and maintaining instructional media.

The media, like other education and curriculum materials, must constantly be revised and updated. The utilization of resource committees, including teachers, students, parents, and lay groups, is essential in planning and evaluating instructional media.

Planning-programming-budgeting system (PPBS), performance budgeting, and cost effectiveness are examples of systems with application to budgeting for the instructional media. The administrator/supervisor in the budget presentation should emphasize the relationship of resources to program capabilities leading to desired learner outcomes. To support requests, explanations and justifications should be included and expressed in terms of learning objectives. However, in school districts where they employ a traditional function-object (line item) format for budgets, the instructional media portion of the budget may be prepared in dual form, using a program budget to accompany the traditional budgets. This would demonstrate the relationship of line item requests to specified objectives of the educational program.

Good teaching methods remain at the heart of every effective learning system. Through the selection and utilization of educational media, it is possible to extend the talents and to raise the level of teaching competency in all teachers. This is the new role of the teacher—manager and director of learning.

Increased demands from parents, students, administrators, supervisors, and teacher groups have resulted in new approaches to education. One of these approaches is the multimedia concept in which instruction is individualized to meet the ever-increasing needs of the learners. The administrator/supervisor in the planning process includes those educational resources that enhances the teaching-learning processes. Some of these may include closed circuit TV, CAI, and film loops.

The key to program development is flexibility based on purpose and effectiveness. The environment will be determined by the quality of the instructional media program. In summation, the instructional media is as good as the person who selects it, who programs it, and who manages it.

Need for feedback. Feedback is an information exchange which provides stability and equilibrium. It is an essential aid to teachers who are trying to understand and change their classroom verbal behavior. An objective, systematic feedback summarization system will, in effect, aid in changing teachers' verbal behavior.

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[13] *Ibid.*, p. 44.

The facilitative effect of knowledge of results upon performance is one of the best established findings in the research literature. Providing employees with feedback on performance can, according to Payne and Hauty, serve the following two purposes: (1) it can act as a directive to keep goal-oriented behavior on course; and (2) it can act as an incentive to stimulate greater effort among the workers.[14] There are a number of studies that reported a positive effect of feedback on performance in a variety of situations (Braunstein, Klein, and Pachla, 1973; Harrison, 1970; Hundal, 1969; Smith and Knight, 1959; and Weitz, Antoinetti, and Wallace, 1954).

Development and effective operation of workable systems of feedback are needed to ensure that difficulties will be pinpointed and analyzed and that steps will be taken to resolve them. Administrators/supervisors need to establish an atmosphere that invites and allows teachers to speak frankly. Moreover, the administrators/supervisors should be aware of the importance of anticipating the difficulties that are bound to develop in the course of change efforts and of the necessity to create feedback mechanisms that will ensure that problems being encountered are aired and heard. They need to work with their staffs to analyze and resolve these problems.

Those who advocate the use of T-groups, participation of subordinates in decision making, and the use of change agents need to assess these activities in terms of their actual contribution to organizational conditions required for effective implementation of innovations. For example, in schools where teachers prefer considerable direction from above, it seems unlikely that strategies stressing participation would be very efficacious.

Despite the great quantity of research that supports the motivational effects of goal setting, knowledge of results, and praise on task performance, there is one point of controversy that needs to be examined. The controversy centers on whether or not knowledge of results and/or praise enhances performance beyond that caused by goal setting alone. For example, Cummings, Schwab, and Rosen discovered that maximal performance can only be achieved when teachers are provided with accurate feedback on performance based on clear and published standards.[15] However, Hackman and Lawler found no relationship between the amount of feedback and resulting performance.[16]

Feedback when added to goals is a key variable in determining the motivational level of teachers. While goal setting is a major determinant of motivation to improve performance of teachers, evaluative and descriptive knowledge of results enables the teachers to accept the goals being set as reasonable and attainable. It gives meaning to their persistence with the task.

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[14] Payne, R. B., and Hauty, G. T. "Effects of Psychological Feedback upon Work Decrement." *Journal of Experimental Psychology* 50:343; 1955.

[15] Cummings, L. L.; Schwab, D. P.; and Rosen, M. "Performance and Knowledge of Results as Determinants of Goal Setting." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 55:526; 1971.

[16] Hackman, J. R., and Lawler, E. E. "Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 55:259; 1971.

Feedback systems can be of significant value in improving the teaching and classroom management skills of teachers. They are accompanied by a concomitant improvement in appropriate classroom behaviors. It occurs as part of the administrator's/supervisor's dynamic organization of the program for curriculum improvement and staff participation in policy formation.

Assessing achievements. The effective development of human resources to achieve organizational goals is tantamount to organizational survival. An explicit objective of human resource development is to integrate individual needs and goals with the organizational needs and goals. It is the responsibility of the administrator/supervisor to ascertain the organizational program needs in order to determine if and how training can facilitate the meeting of those needs.

It is unlikely that the learner would be directly involved in the organizational needs assessment. However, conversation with teachers, employers, and potential learners can be a useful method of taking the organization's pulse to obtain a reading on its effectiveness. Feedback and evaluation should occur at each step rather than at the end of the process. Too often, an evaluation is defined in terms of a "pass-fail" decision, to "prove" the worth of a program, or where related reforms are advocated, as though they are guaranteed to resolve the problems. Evaluation should be both a generative process and a reality check. Evaluation is most productive when it is a continuous process of program assessment and improvement.

Administrators/supervisors contend that the evaluation process is a fundamental element of educational improvement. There is widely held agreement that a set of rating procedures will act as a catalyst, thereby motivating the average teacher to do a better job. Furthermore, it is contended that assessment is an effective means for providing professional feedback for the purpose of refining teaching skills and strategies. The administrator's/supervisor's ratings will, in effect, be instrumental in bringing about a teacher's critical self-evaluation.

Teacher effectiveness can only be assessed in relation to the goals of the instructional process. The energies of teachers and supervisions should be redirected from ever-increasing curriculum development to the improvement of instruction. Programs should be developed to reward excellence in the classroom and to permit qualified teachers to operate in their areas of special preparation.

Teachers need to know and understand the criteria by which they are to be evaluated. Assessment procedures should be cooperatively planned and executed with the assistance of teachers, administrators, and supervisors. Evaluation should, therefore, become diagnostic rather than judgmental, thus preserving the professional respect between supervisor and teacher.

Determining the operational effectiveness of the program involves the staff in assessing the attained results—staff and the affected learners within the educational framework. Though these need to be appraised separately to ascertain individual effectiveness, it is the composite operational analysis which relates to learner performance in the overall program that is most important. Hence, the type of appraisal criteria developed by administrators/supervisors and teachers will depend upon the stated objectives, the type of operational framework, the consequent functioning demands, and the expected performance levels. Programs such as management-by-objectives (MBO), planning, program planning and budgeting system (PPBS), and long-range planning have stressed the need to give the organization direction. Some similar strategies can be applied to improvement of the organization's management of human resources.

Establishing priorities. The administrator/supervisor is constantly confronted with the necessity to establish priorities. One can do so deliberately and with forethought, or one can allow priorities to be set fortuitously. Regardless, priorities need to be established.

The skillful setting of priorities involves much more than merely reviewing a series of items and establishing a time schedule for action. Priorities/schedules help determine and control who does what and what comes first. It is essential to have a good system of priorities and schedules to accomplish optimum results. The purpose for the prioritizing phase is to have well established in the minds of the principals and teachers which objectives will be met first. This phase not only encourages the principal but also the teacher to identify areas where additional resources are needed. Priority setting, therefore, requires the judicious use of information, and some of it may be readily available, whereas some will need to be assembled. It also involves skill in the anticipation of the consequences of acting immediately or of deferring action.

As with the other skills related to decision making, skill in establishing priorities can be enhanced with experience. This skill can be increased appreciably through the use of appropriately designed training activities.

Montaigne's advice still gives us "something to go by" as we make our decisions: "Whoever goes in search of anything must reach this point: either to say that he has found it, or that it is not to be found, or that he is still upon the quest!"[17]

REPORTING RESPONSIBILITIES

Communication involves many abilities, and being able to write and speak effectively is a prerequisite to success in social interaction.

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[17] "Apology for Raimonde de Sebonde." *The Essays of Michel de Montaigne.* (Translated by Charles Cotton. Edited by W. Carey Hazlett.) London: George Bell and Sons, 1892.

Through the use of communication skills, problems can be identified, analyzed, and solved. For any thoughtful consideration of the importance of good communication to take place, there must be both active and passive participants and something to communicate. It must also be recognized that communication involves ideas, feelings, and attitudes. Thus, the first requisite of effective communication is clarity and organization. The second is the ability to listen and assimilate judiciously.

Effective communication must serve one or more purposes: It may be to convey ideas, to transmit feelings, or to pass on or change attitudes. The prime test of the effectiveness in communication is, of course, its results. Are attitudes being changed? Are ideas being transmitted? Are feelings known? The need for changes in attitude and behavior is not restricted; it is applicable for all. Therefore, the ability to communicate effectively is essential in any type of situation.

Need for reporting. Every institution is designed to serve the public interest. The administrator/supervisor/management is expected to be motivated by a spirit of service to explain the institution's goals, achievements, and needs to the public; and secondly, to ascertain from its clientele (and possibly others) how to improve its services or products. Concomitant with the concern over the rising costs of education is the demand for financial accountability—that the quality of the curricular and co-curricular programs of the school merit the associated costs.

Basically, we communicate with the publics because the schools are dependent on the community for financial and program support. Even though education is a state function, the current structure for school operation grants considerable discretionary power to local communities. Therefore, it is essential that all the intraorganizational groups concerned with the success of the schools know and fulfill adequately their roles in the extraorganizational relationships.

To whom. Before any attempt is made to communicate any information, the first step is to analyze with whom it is we want to communicate. There is no one, all-inclusive public. There are several publics, internal and external, each with vested interests and needs. The internal public includes students, teachers, administrators, nonteachers, central administration, feeder schools, colleges and universities, and other schools in the district. The external public includes the parents, alumni, community leaders, taxpayers, and the news media. Two-way lines of communication must be established with these publics and the messages tailored to meet their needs, as there are many messages to convey: priorities and programs, progress and problems, people and policies, performance and plans.

Reporting as part of public relations. Effective public relations can be established by learning basic facts, absorbing fundamental philosophies, and following basic guidelines. One can further envision public relations as a two-way avenue involving effective teamwork between the school and community. When this occurs, communication is established. One may ascertain school public relations as a communication process between the community and school, in which the citizenry gain insight of the educational goals and objectives and in which improvement of our school programs is feasible through a cooperative spirit between these two groups.

Three basic elements should be considered in the creation of an effective school public relations program. They are as follows:

1. The program must be an honest one. Goodwill rather than selling the program should be foremost. As in the familiar saying, "Know the truth, and the truth shall make you free. Sow the truth, and the truth shall make you friends." Thus, what one says, one must do.
2. Awareness of the sincerity of the schools must be available to the public. Good deeds cannot be conveyed unless sincerity exists within the policies, and execution of policies and plans are carried out as intended.
3. Public relations must be considered as a continuous program. The maintenance of a sound, continuous program of interpretation and cooperative spirit is essential. As Shakespeare once said ". . . too fast arrive as tardy as too slow." Impatience should not prevail. A high degree of effort must prevail.

The administrator/supervisor must become enthusiastically cognizant of his/her role in the area of public relations.

One of the first objectives of an administrator/supervisor should be the strengthening of community-school relationships through brochures, speeches, and newspaper articles, by providing feedback on the community's feelings and opinions about school matters, and by managing visits to the schools.

The greatest challenge is to inform all publics of the need for change and to involve them meaningfully in the process of planning change. Citizen involvement is essential in helping to develop a report about the school's educational needs and present status. Lay participation and control will continue to be the cornerstone and foundation of public education. Public opinion, as in the past, will be the force that operates to determine ultimately the direction of a school system.

The need for an effective instrument for the exposition, clarification, and promulgation of the public will, with respect to the schools, is the reason for a program of community-school relations and the justification for its refinement and improvement in the future. It is imperative that administrators/supervisors establish and maintain effective public relations.

There are two means through which the objectives of community-school relations can be realized. The first consists of institutional interpretation, which seeks to acquaint the people with their schools by providing opportunities for them to know, to understand, and to influence the development and direction of their schools. Secondly, through community interpretation the conditions and needs of the community are made known to school personnel. This provides a means by which the public can identify and support the desirable goals and objectives of the school system; and the schools, in turn, can contribute effectively to community betterment.

Techniques administrators/supervisors may wish to employ are as follows:

Organize a speaker's bureau composed of staff and student members to speak to parent-teacher and community groups.

Invite business and industry representatives to exhibit their materials and products and discuss their activities with students.

Make an inventory of the human resources in the school community.

Plan ahead to prevent poor performance.

Obtain teacher reaction, comments, and suggestions about school policies.

Keep staff well informed about all school programs so they can keep students informed.

Solicit and utilize student/school attitude surveys.

Promote student participation in curriculum decisions by serving on curriculum committees.

Establish craft committees, utilizing parents, students, and business personnel.

Conduct mini-seminars with resource business education personnel.

Reporting as a part of public relations is essential. The school is a vital community institution, and the public desires to know the role of the school, the changes and innovations in school programs and practices, and decision making about school matters.

Reporting as part of assessment. We have recognized the need for good communication and have implied that two-way communication is necessary for best results. Emphasis has been given to the need for a flow of information to each person who must make decisions, so he/she will be able to think in responsible terms. Thorough explanation of new plans, programs, systems, and methods is a constant need. Solicitation of teacher reactions, questions, and suggestions in virtually every situation where there is some latitude in decisions is highly recommended. The administrator and/or immediate supervisor plays a key role in communicating both downward and upward; however, he/she must also be an effective communicator in the continuing relationships with other supervisors and staff personnel.

A skilled administrator/supervisor recognizes the desires of subordinates to know about developments which may affect them—whether these are county-, city-, or districtwide in scope, departmental, or individual. People seek such information, and if they do not receive it through their administrator/supervisor or other formal channels (such as standard forms and reports, memorandums, bulletins, house organs, or general meetings), they will turn to the grapevine for answers or other information of interest. Thus, management's challenge is to provide a good formal communications program that supplies significant and timely information and minimizes the dependence by teachers and others upon the grapevine for information.

Encouraging a good upward flow of questions, suggestions, and information of other sorts is an undertaking that requires constant vigilance and special effort. Empathy, skill in listening and observing, and special effort in reporting assessment effectively are basic if real communication is to occur.

The key to effective assessment of the program is in the establishment of appropriate goals and objectives, the development of written records, effective communications about results, and the ultimate prevention of the ineffective utilization of limited human resources. The report will illustrate what has been achieved and what is needed as well as what has been expended—educational activities as well as financial. Efficient reporting of achievement and assessment requires close cooperation among all elements of the instructional community—the administrator, staff, students, resource personnel, central administration, supervisor—working together to ensure effective program operation.

Nature of reports. How does an administrator/supervisor know what is going on in the program, whether objectives are being achieved, whether activities are being performed efficiently, and whether any assistance is needed? Part of the answers to these questions is a matter of organizational and individual style. Some administrators/supervisors operate best with formal, written reports with stated deadlines, and in some organizations, such reporting may indeed be a requirement imposed by some "higher authority." Others find that face-to-face communication is more efficient or effective.

The development of a written statement of objectives for each of the several functions, if done carefully, provides a solid basis for communication and reporting within the personnel function and between that function and other offices. This does not, of course, preclude special or one-time reports on given subjects, but it does provide a results-oriented framework for communication about performance. There is a definite need to strike a balance between face-to-face communication and written communication. There is merit, however, at least annually, to formally document what has been accomplished and what yet needs to be done.

CONCLUSION

All enterprises need to understand and accommodate new accountability expectations—such as demonstration of social benefits, efficient use of resources, cost effectiveness, affirmative action, protection of the environment, and truthful reporting of all activities. In a school, teachers, administrators, and the board of education share accountability, with a residual accountability left to students, graduates, and others. The locus of management responsibilities in a school district is diffused and often confused.

The idea of supervision is anathema. Teaching represents a highly personal relationship between a teacher and one or more students. A supervisor's hands are tied in the typical employee relations areas because of the geometric progression of federal and state laws affecting personnel.

The value of teachers' ideas in setting goals, formulating plans, improving methods, and controlling one's performance is essential. Many sound ideas come to light that would otherwise be ignored. Participation may range in degree from complete delegation of a responsibility, to consultation on major aspects of a problem or proposal, or on minor details of how to apply a plan already decided upon, or teacher reaction to a predetermined plan. This direct relationship by administrators/supervisors in the planning and reporting functions to human needs is apparent. Participation in numerous forms offers many opportunities for self-fulfillment.

Supervisory reports must be the mainstay of any accountability program. Policy makers, planners, administrators, supervisors, and researchers of the many disciplines and fields associated with education are facing increased pressure for accountability of expenditures. Whether they are local, regional, state, or federal levels, in basic or applied research, under government sponsorship or private, they are facing a real need to select priorities from among numerous attractive programs and projects which compete for scarce resources.

School districts are confronted with a variety of pressures which make district administration one of the more challenging managerial milieus. Some of these problems are severe budgetary limitations, a highly mobile population, and innovations in the technology of education itself. Because of these pressures, the need for long-range planning of all aspects of district operations has become more imperative and complex. MBO, PPBS, performance evaluation, and other new scientific approaches to management and accountability in education are far more demanding of communication skills and effort than has ever been the case for school administrators/supervisors. One of the chief problems and failures in educational applications of these new management techniques has been ineffective communication. It has been said that communication is the lubrication of management. One must be an administrator, supervisor, interpreter, conflict mediator, educator for educators, and ombudsman, as well as a professional growing and engaging in self-improvement on the job. The administrator/supervisor cannot avoid responsibility for the planning and reporting functions along with the responsibility for the stewardship and utilization of all program resources.

CHAPTER 18

Curriculum Development Responsibilities

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Organizing educational experiences into proper sequences so students attain their highest level of potential may be the most important task assigned to administrators and supervisors of business education. Identifying and integrating the proper combination of available resources, such as personnel, equipment, facilities, and current research, which will permit flexibility of choice and protect student individuality are challenges facing business educators. The development of realistic and meaningful offerings is an ongoing responsibility and depends largely upon how business education administrators and supervisors work together to plan and implement a comprehensive business education program.

Educational terminology varies from state to state and from community to community; therefore, some of the more commonly used terms in this chapter are defined. A *program* shall mean the total business education offerings, such as mini courses and specific curriculums through which students are prepared to enter an occupational field. A *curriculum* shall mean a series of systematically arranged courses designed for the attainment of specific vocational goals. Examples of curriculums are accounting (USOE 14.01 00), clerical (USOE 14.03 00), and stenographic-secretarial (USOE 14.07 00). A *course* shall mean organized subject matter comprising a series of integrated units of instruction. Examples of courses are accounting I and office practice.

Along with all education, business education finds its rationale, its place, its objectives, and its context challenged by a series of changes in society. Business education must respond to these changes without relinquishing what is sound and necessary. Before planning the program, the business education department should bear in mind some significant facts about future office employees; namely, all students should become competent typists as the typewriter is the most commonly used machine in the business office, receive some instruction in accounting or recordkeeping with stress on the vocabulary of business, be taught how to use a telephone correctly, learn peripheral business skills such as filing, and receive a good background in the fundamentals of arithmetic and grammar. Since business education to a large extent is a terminal program, how to apply for a job and basic attitude on the job should be taught to all business students.

PLANNING THE PROGRAM

When probable experiences to be faced by graduates of business education departments are determined, a program should be planned to help students meet these job requirements. The translation of these experiences into learning units is a task that requires considerable planning and should follow the "principle of probability" theory. Planning the business education program is a continuous process and can be broken down into five steps. First, determine occupations for which students should be prepared and, in so doing, recognize that training cannot be offered for all occupations. This information can be secured by working closely with personnel in the employment area. Second, decide which curriculums to offer and ascertain the content matter that should be taught in each curriculum. Third, organize specific courses and decide on which grade level each course should be taught. Fourth, decide upon objectives that measure student outcomes in terms of *changed behavior*—toward the use of behavioral-type objectives. Fifth, evaluate the total program by continuously working with employers and former business students. Most certainly, the most important aspect of curriculum development is the continuous evaluation of the total business education program. A later portion of this chapter deals with program evaluation.

Careful consideration needs to be given to the following guidelines for curriculum construction:

1. Vocational business education should be taught as close to the time of use as possible—concentrated in the later years of high school.
2. There must be enough concentration of work in each area for students to develop sufficient competency to obtain a satisfactory beginning job in a given occupation upon the completion of the curriculum.
3. Peripheral knowledge associated with the occupational competencies should be provided to the degree possible. This would include content matter found in courses such as business law and general business.
4. A well-planned business education program requires a balance of vocational education and general education. Each curriculum should be built on a broad base of general education.
5. Often, various segments of subject matter must be dropped. Deletion is as necessary, and sometimes as important, as adding subject matter.
6. No one can learn everything. Those competencies which in the present and immediate future appear to be most important should be taught.
7. Consideration should be given to a differentiation between the skills that can be learned more efficiently on the job than in school. Business teachers must not be guilty of spending time and money for equipment to teach skills that can be acquired in the office in a matter of minutes. A school offering instruction on the various types of copiers is an example.
8. Each business function with which a student is familiar increases his or her desirability as an employee.

CONSIDERATION OF TRENDS

Recent trends in the total education program have a direct or indirect bearing on business education. Some of the trends taking place in education in general and in business education in particular are:

1. The number of semester or half-year courses is increasing. Semester courses afford flexibility, give students additional variety, and expose them to a much larger number of choices than yearly courses. Semester courses also take care of students' individual differences and preferences.

2. There is increasing need to offer instruction in consumer education. Business education courses, such as business law, business mathematics, and general business, do include units that relate directly or indirectly to consumer education and must be organized around actual activities presently important in the life of each student. Consumption activities become more important when studied close to the time when the individual earns money and spends it for those goods and services necessary for maintaining one's standard of living.

3. To counteract trends of dehumanization due to computer operations, businesspersons are emphasizing the social aspects of doing business. Business education must meet this aspect of business by teaching young people such things as accepted behavior on the office coffee break, the cordial reception of visitors and clients, a warm and pleasant telephone manner, and an outgoing human relationship with fellow employees.

4. The titles of some business education courses have been changing from descriptive to general terms. For instance, the course that was at one time referred to as bookkeeping is now called accounting. Some schools are now considering changing the name of business English to business communications, and general business to introduction to business. Students react more positively to these course titles as the words "general" and "English" create an immediate resistance in the minds of some students.

5. Word processing is becoming an important concept in the world of business and may be defined as "the combination of procedures, personnel, and equipment which accomplishes the transformation of ideas into printed communication." The concept word processing, which incorporates the two leading principles of modern technology—automation and systematization—is proving to be a successful attempt in keeping the cost of business communications to a minimum. Another benefit is its relative simplicity of administration.

ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

Business education has been known for its adaptability to broaden the education of all students irrespective of the program in which they are enrolled. Within recent years, business teachers working cooperatively with school administrators and counselors have been experimenting with a number of alternative approaches that add flexibility of choice for students with diverse abilities and life goals.

College preparatory business curriculum. College preparatory students often elect business courses as a form of job insurance in case they do not enter or complete college. Business students occasionally elect college preparatory courses to meet the minimum college entrance requirements if they later decide to pursue higher education. The election of these courses in effect leads to the development of a curriculum, commonly referred to as the college preparatory business curriculum.

The basic purpose of a college preparatory business curriculum is to provide occupational education for college-bound students. Such training is practical for those who want to attend college but must support or partially support themselves while doing so. Those young people who start college and do not finish—approximately 50 percent—will appreciate a vocational skill to help them earn a livelihood if withdrawal forces them into the labor market.

This curriculum might be business education's most significant contribution to the "mentally gifted" who plan to pursue further education at a postsecondary institution. Many students who plan to attend college are interested in enrolling in business courses during their last year or two of high school. The following are typical comments that college-bound students make about business courses. "If I do not have the money to go to college, then shorthand and typewriting will give me some background to be a secretary." "Now that I have completed two years of high school accounting, it will be a lot easier to get a job in a bank or with an insurance company."

When a school does not have an organized college preparatory business curriculum, the business education program should be flexible enough to permit students in the college preparatory program to enroll in courses which will enable them to acquire salable or personal-use skills. Such skills as accounting, shorthand, and typewriting also can be useful to college-bound students when reconciling bank accounts, taking lecture notes, and typing term papers.

The recommendation is strongly made for business education departments to work cooperatively with school administrators and counselors to assume the leadership in developing a college preparatory business curriculum that can be commonly offered in secondary schools. Students should be made aware of the alternatives available to them as a result of electing this curriculum.

Mini courses. Mini courses, sometimes referred to as short courses, add flexibility to the total school program and give an added dimension to the business education program. These courses may be conducted for any number of weeks—perhaps as long as one semester. Most schools find it feasible to set up mini courses that coincide with marking periods. If a school has four marking periods a year, mini courses could be organized for four 9-week periods. A school that has six marking periods a year might organize these courses into six 6-week periods or twelve 3-week periods. These courses should be developed to conform to the needs of each school district.

Occupational preparation necessitates that vocational courses, such as accounting, office practice, recordkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting, be offered for a full year or more as needed. Most other business courses can be organized as mini courses.

Advantages of mini courses include availability of additional business education to nonbusiness students, greater flexibility of scheduling, expanded opportunity to meet student needs, more extensive use of a variety of teaching materials, and less use of textbooks. Possible problems include additional time needed for scheduling, selection of teachers to offer instruction in additional courses, more detailed planning by teachers, and availability of classroom space when there is a heavy demand for a given course. Before initiating mini courses, a school should make a survey of student interests and a study of schools that have previously initiated these courses.

Summer and adult programs. Many school districts conduct summer remedial and enrichment business education courses which are available to students still in high school. Adult evening classes are open to high school graduates, nongraduates, and in some instances, high school seniors. Classes in accounting, shorthand, and typewriting are generally offered, and sociobusiness courses are becoming increasingly popular.

Cooperative programs. For years educators have realized that certain aspects of their program can be learned better "on the job" than in the classroom. Cooperative programs have been expanded to suit the needs of local conditions, school schedules, and willingness of the business community to actively participate. Further, these programs have been amplified and refined to the point that presently they are a viable tool in preparing students both technically and emotionally for work in offices upon graduation. Developing initiative, overcoming timidity, and getting along with people other than one's peer group are important aspects of cooperative business education. In essence, these programs solicit the aid of school and community office personnel in opening their offices on a part-time basis to allow high school students to receive training in skills best acquired in an actual office situation.

To help insure a successful cooperative experience, all parties—students, parents, teachers, counselors, school administrators, and employers—should accept its purpose. The employer, particularly, must accept his or her responsibility to contribute to the education of each student, while the school administrator needs to allow the coordinating teacher sufficient time to supervise the participants on the job.

Participation in cooperative business education should be voluntary, because enrollment is not necessarily in the best interest of every student. Each applicant should be screened on an individual basis and placed in a work station suitable to his/her ability.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

The success of a high school business education program is determined by the amount of knowledge and level of skills of its graduates. Also, its success can be measured by the number of graduates who are hired for initial office positions. Further, these graduates should exhibit a potential for growth and upward movement within the company which employs them.

Traditionally, schools receive feedback through chance encounters of school personnel with employers of former graduates or with the graduates themselves. Often these encounters are in the nature of complaints delineating deficiencies rather than offering constructive suggestions for improvement of instruction. While better than no communication at all, this feedback often is neither measurable nor specific.

Rather than rely upon unmeasurable data such as that indicated above, other ways of evaluating a business education program should be used. First, reliable outside sources can be requested to serve as a sounding board. Here, graduates and prospective employers can respond to questions included in a carefully developed form of inquiry, and a lay advisory committee should be formed for the purpose of meeting periodically to discuss the business education program and offer suggestions for its successful operation. Second, evaluative criteria that include predetermined standards may be secured readily and used easily. These criteria, for the most part, have been designed by accrediting agencies and state departments of education.

Use of outside sources. Outside sources provide the most scientific method of evaluating a business education program. Methods that can be used are discussed subsequently.

QUESTIONNAIRE—GRADUATES. To help evaluate the effectiveness of the business education program, a follow-up study of graduates needs to be made annually. The best procedure is to send a questionnaire to recent graduates at their home address the spring following graduation. The information from such a study should be considered more than a statistical listing of so many successes against so many failures in each school year. Primarily, follow-up information should be used as a tool for curriculum revision to make additions or deletions in the existing program to promote better skills or stress more acceptable attitudes in future employes.

QUESTIONNAIRE—EMPLOYERS. In addition to a follow-up of graduates, a questionnaire should be mailed to present and potential employers in local offices at least once every five years to obtain the business community's input into possible curriculum revision. Employers may be asked to include such information as the number of entry-level positions available, the number of applicants applying each year, description of employment tests used, job performance standards, recommended training on various types of office machines, and suggestions relative to curriculum revision.

LAY ADVISORY COMMITTEE. A lay advisory committee is formed for the purpose of bringing business education into continuous communication with the business world. Membership on this committee should be composed of executive and nonexecutive office personnel, vocational business education students, and recent graduates of the business education program. This committee is a viable and important source of oral feedback and gives advice concerning the business education program to business teachers, school counselors, and school administrators. An appraisal of the overall performance of graduates of the business education program is only a small portion of the information that can be gathered from this group. Trends, new types of office machines, new job descriptions, or modification of the existing ones are all within the province of the lay advisory committee. Development of a long-range forecast of the need for business education graduates in the employment area is one of the more important outcomes of a lay advisory committee.

Use of predetermined standards. The National Study of Secondary School Evaluation and numerous state departments of education have developed varying types of criteria to encourage a business education department to evaluate its program. These criteria are of greatest value when used by business teachers as a guide for evaluating a given program against standards recommended by a representative group of business educators. The criteria can serve as a means of determining areas where improvement can be made.

Making recommendations. After an analysis is made of the data secured through questionnaires, information offered by the lay advisory committee, and the use of evaluative criteria, the findings should be noted and analyzed by the business education department. This is a case of an "evaluation being made of the evaluations." Next, school administrators and counselors should be advised concerning trends that will bring about revisions, expansion, and general improvement in the business education program. These changes will better meet the needs of the business community and those enrolled in the business education program.

CONCLUSION

In all education programs, business education notwithstanding, there should be a degree of stability built into what is being offered. This is necessary if teachers are to do the type of professional job expected of them in preparing students for the world of work and helping them to become better citizens in our system of free competitive enterprise. Unfortunately, there are those in education who are enamored with what is new and want to make changes continuously. Also, there are others who have become weary of the many changes being advocated and taking place, and consequently resent any changes. In the best interest of teachers and students, the recommendation is offered that changes be made gradually.

Percentagewise, a large portion of students who are graduates of a school's business education program obtain jobs in the world of business. Business plays a major role in our democratic way of life. Through the taxes it pays and the taxes the people who are employed by business pay, the activities of education are supported. Therefore, schools have the responsibility to provide an education that will help business function by preparing skilled workers for available jobs.

An up-to-date, flexible business education program designed to keep abreast of the changing social and economic environment can be enhanced by the development of realistic, competency-based curriculums. The task of developing curriculums that will enable students to assume successfully the roles of employee and citizen in a free competitive enterprise system is a shared responsibility among business educators, businesspersons, school administrators, school counselors, teacher educators, state department of education personnel, and U.S. Office of Education officials. Meaningful curriculum development in business education depends upon how effectively each one in these groups contributes available resources, energy, and talents so students in today's business classrooms will become productive employees in tomorrow's business offices.

CHAPTER 19

Evaluating the Effectiveness of a Supervisor/Administrator

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The administration and/or supervision of an educational program should exist primarily for the purpose of enhancing the effectiveness of a school's learning environment. Unfortunately, many administrators and supervisors at all levels are prone to lose sight of the primacy of this mission. There is also a tendency on the part of many people to feel that through the addition of new equipment, luxurious classroom facilities, or other cosmetic features learning is automatically improved. Business educators, in fact, may occasionally be predisposed to the notion of outdoing neighboring schools or other school systems within the state or nation because of the availability of funding sources. This is not to suggest that tangible evidences of program improvement are unimportant, for they certainly help any teacher to motivate students toward successful learning. The important point to remember, however, is that the classroom element having the greatest impact on student learning is the teacher. It is to the classroom teacher that this author believes an administrator or supervisor should make the greatest contribution.

Whether a department head, a local supervisor, or a county or state supervisor, the supervisor who is able to develop a system that will respond quickly to the needs of those supervised, provides a tremendous impetus to classroom learning and program effectiveness. The administrator/supervisor, however, must be constantly alert and available to help teachers attain their full potential.

To achieve this primary or central purpose, there are several personal competencies the supervisor/administrator must exemplify. These include human relations skills, strength as an educational leader, ability to innovate and plan, competency in curriculum design, and professional commitment. It is these basic competencies to which this chapter will be addressed.

EFFECTIVENESS IN THE USE OF HUMAN RELATIONS SKILLS

It is important to understand that a good supervisor/administrator must possess much more than academic achievement, classroom experience, and knowledge of supervisory or administrative techniques. These are certainly important factors in making basic decisions about the direction of a program, but are of little significance if the needs and feelings of others are ignored as part of the planning. The supervisor/administrator must not only be considerate of the opinions and sensitivities of those involved in the major decisions, he/she must also act with sympathetic appreciation of the feelings of those who will be affected by them. While this may not necessitate complete staff concurrence in all major decisions, it does require that alternative solutions to problems or procedures be examined for their ultimate effect upon the program.

Sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others may appear to be an obvious precaution, and many supervisors would undoubtedly say of themselves, "I do involve my teachers in most major decisions." In fact, some supervisors might believe that their teachers are excessively involved. But staff opinions or responses to requests for input cannot be presumed to include effective involvement in the decision-making process. Subordinates, for example, may feel that their input to decision making is glossed over—really unwanted—and that requests for opinions are little more than window dressing. Some staff members may be reluctant to express an honest opinion, particularly if it runs counter to that of the supervisor or other staff members.

Supervisors must guard against these deficiencies in personal relations. They may actually need to go through the process of personal introspection and self-assessment before they are able to bring the interaction of the staff to the desired level of effectiveness.

Need for personal self-confidence. Self-confidence is an important characteristic of an effective supervisor/administrator. The supervisor/administrator who possesses a high degree of self-confidence will probably be able to make timely and efficient decisions. But timely, efficient decisions, lacking in staff participation, are frequently lacking in acceptance or commitment and doomed to failure. Democratic decision making may delay the decision but greatly enhance its eventual effectiveness.

The literature abounds in illustrations of supervisors lacking in self-confidence, who specialize in belittling colleagues, "nit-picking," or treating any contribution of an associate as a threat to their own performance. Personal insecurity, furthermore, often causes a supervisor to consider teachers with personal conviction as "hard to handle" or "those who never seem to cooperate." Because the job of administrator or supervisor involves people and their interaction, it is extremely important that his/her level of self-confidence is sufficient to withstand the thoughtful contributions of the staff, including occasional constructive criticism. This quality may attest to the supervisor's capacity for working effectively with others.

Need for personal development. One obvious means for developing and/or maintaining one's level of confidence is through continued study and growth. The business education supervisor/administrator must keep abreast of curriculum innovation, changing occupational patterns and job requirements, business trends, improvements in instructional methods and materials, new legislation, and many other resources available that might contribute to a teacher's effectiveness.

To attain these many objectives, a supervisor/administrator must participate in conferences and workshops, work in or visit a variety of business organizations, read professional articles published both in and out of the field of business education, profit from the ideas and opinions of others, explore and test out new theories and opinions, and simply be alert to events that may have an impact on the business education program.

The supervisor/administrator, furthermore, must exercise self-discipline when performing formal and informal research. In order to gather data and information essential to sound decision making, the supervisor/administrator must draw systematically upon the experience of teachers, business representatives, and fellow supervisors.

EFFECTIVENESS AS A LEADER

To evaluate an administrator/supervisor as a leader, we must understand the meaning of "leadership" as it relates to the supervisory/administrative function. The term leadership has been defined as:

> An interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that outcomes will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired.[1]

Leadership in an organizational context is thus defined in terms of techniques that will produce compliance on the part of subordinates without producing resistance. Competence at a particular task, the ability to understand subordinates, and ability to facilitate the accomplishment of a desirable action is what leadership is all about. Leadership can be described very properly as a group activity, for no one can lead apart from a group. A leader must also be an active member of the group, for the test of leadership is the contribution an individual makes to the group situation. The true leader, therefore, must possess the ability to create a group feeling and coordinate the group's interaction so as to reach the desired outcomes.

Need for good group relationships. The ability to employ good group dynamics is essential to leadership skill. The process requires that the supervisor/administrator first become accepted as a member of the group by working "with" and not "for" or "on" the group. Frequently administrators/supervisors form committees to accomplish a particular task—to develop curriculum materials, write program objectives, review new instructional materials, or make recommendations for program content. Whatever the makeup or purpose of the group, the supervisor/administrator must be careful not to become the slave or sole worker. Should this happen, the supervisor/administrator ceases to function as a leader, loses control, and in fact, may actually begin moving outside the group. Similarly, a supervisor/administrator must be cautioned against overpowering or dominating the group with a priority that seems important to him/her only. Many times a supervisor/administrator will have a pet idea or program that becomes a major priority. Attempting to railroad the idea or to force the implementation of a new program will usually result in minimal group acceptance or support. Here again, the supervisor/administrator will probably become "an outsider" with little or no group persuasiveness.

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[1] Gibson, J.L.; Ivancevich, J.M.; and Donnelly, J.H. *Organizations Structure, Processes, and Behavior.* Dallas: Business Publications, 1973. p. 290.

Group acceptance is a basic ingredient of effective group dynamics. One way to gain this acceptance is to demonstrate the ability to listen to and fully consider the individual ideas and experiences of group members. This requires that the supervisor/administrator learn the art of "when to speak and when to remain silent." Unfortunately, many of us become so concerned with preconceived ideas that we become poor listeners and fail to recognize the value of the ideas and talents of our colleagues. If the supervisor/administrator has an idea or a program change that seems particularly important, it is essential that time be devoted to laying the groundwork. This can often be accomplished simply by exposing the staff to speakers, media, or operational examples which will generate the necessary enthusiasm and support for adoption of the desired change. The integration of youth organization activities into the classroom, the changeover of conventional office practive instruction to the model office or simulation approach, or the incorporation of modern word processing technologies in the office practive laboratory are examples of ideas that may require building staff support.

The effective supervisor/administrator must not only recognize the idea or practice as desirable but must also gather as much factual information as possible to provide valid support. Secondly, colleagues should be provided opportunities for exposure to formal and informal evidence that will help them to reach an unpressured acceptance. Through such a process the supervisor/administrator is able to help the group share in the ownership of the proposal and jointly plan its implementation.

Capacity for decision making. Another important leadership skill, which may overlap group dynamics, involves the supervisor/administrator's ability to make timely and effective decisions. This talent requires a sense of timing. Too many times a supervisor/administrator may present an idea at the wrong moment or move too precipitously from the conception of the idea to the decision for its implementation. Conversely, there may sometimes be a tendency to ponder the alternatives to the point of exhaustion—using cost, poor instructional materials, scheduling, or a variety of other hazards as reasons for the delay.

It is clearly evident that effective program supervision/administration is dependent upon leadership that can derive the maximum potential from a staff. But even of greater import, this leadership must be generated through dynamic staff interaction resulting in a learning environment where students are able to achieve maximum growth.

EFFECTIVENESS AS AN INNOVATOR

One of the factors influencing the quality of business education is the ability to keep the program abreast of change in the business world. Numerous forces contribute to the acceleration of this change; some are directly related to economic conditions that cause business to seek more cost-effective practices and procedures. Employees continue to demand higher wages and fringe benefits in order to keep pace with inflation; and at the same time manufacturing, transportation, and other operational costs continue to sky rocket. Job responsibilities and equipment changes are also being explored as a means of keeping operational costs within reasonable bounds. The role of the secretary, for example, is being modified from the traditional one-on-one relationship to one of teams of grouped and ungrouped configurations. This new form of office organization usually involves increased specialization, differing degrees of supervision, changing lines of authority, and new career paths. Office workers are faced today with the continuous need to accommodate to changes in office organization and technology. For these and many other reasons, the supervisor/administrator must be concerned with regular program assessment and innovation, examine constantly instructional programs for their relevance and effectiveness, and be in tune with changes occurring in the employment community and their impact on individual programs.

As job descriptions and duties change and technological advances occur, the supervisor/administrator must be alert to new and often unique approaches for keeping pace. The supervisor/administrator, for example, must find ways to accommodate the maximum number of students in a laboratory facility with highly specialized equipment. New instructional strategies must be conceived that will develop job competence in the shortest period of time and at the least cost. Opportunities must also be explored for developing articulation between secondary and postsecondary institutions as well as with industry in order to achieve the objectives of the various business education programs. These are especially important steps in the implementation of data processing, word processing, reprographics, and other high-cost programs.

Need for cost-consciousness. Some supervisors/administrators have used mobile laboratory units and regional centers to extend program capabilities while keeping costs within reasonable bounds. Others are exploring ways to cut costs and provide better job preparation through more effective use of the business community. New and better procedures for providing quality instruction at reasonable cost must be uppermost in the mind of the administrator/supervisor.

On the other hand, economic factors should not be the only or the most important reason for innovation. Experimentation with new and improved methods of teaching, new instructional materials, and alternative means of program organization are equally significant and must not be thrust aside because of obsession with cost.

Concern for individual student needs. In recent years much attention has been given to the needs of individual students. Numerous curriculum materials and instructional aids have been developed and marketed in an attempt to meet this need. The effective supervisor/administrator must encourage teacher experimentation with these new materials and innovative instructional approaches to test their true value. Considerable effort must also be made to provide funds needed for the related field testing. For example, teachers should be encouraged to experiment with the new media approaches for individualized instruction in shorthand and typewriting; they should also be encouraged to test the learning activity packet and other modular approaches for their instructional advantages. The supervisor should be able, in addition, to generate the spark that ignites teacher interest and enthusiasm in approaches that have the potential for increasing the learning capability of individual students.

Keeping abreast of innovation. Keeping teachers abreast of innovative practices occurring in other subject-matter fields and in other parts of the country is still another means for stimulating program development. Copies of articles, graduate theses and dissertations, reports of special projects and grants are easily accessible in both hard copy or microfiche. State departments of education are also likely to make completed research projects and reports on experimental programs accessible to interested parties. Also, there are usually opportunities for local teachers to participate in special research projects. The supervisor/administrator can be of considerable help by seeking out sources of financial aid and assisting with the development of the necessary proposal for funding.

EFFECTIVENESS AS A CURRICULUM DESIGNER

One of the most important responsibilities of an educational administrator/supervisor is to provide leadership and assistance with local curriculum and state curriculum development. Obviously, the curriculum followed in the classroom is the key to the direction of any program. The supervisor/administrator must keep current about societal changes as well as changes in business practice that are likely to affect the lives of both workers and consumers. The supervisor/administrator must give generously of his/her time and "expertise" to teachers who are in the process of effecting curriculum change.

It is equally important that the supervisor/administrator be well informed on current techniques of curriculum development. In recent years considerable attention has been devoted to competency-based education, for example, and numerous resources are becoming available in vocational education to help supervisors and teachers understand what competency-based education is all about. The effective supervisor/administrator must seek out information and assistance from others concerning not only the process but also the implementation of competency-based education within the classroom.

Unfortunately, many supervisors/administrators resist involvement in curriculum innovation, often because he/she has neglected to keep abreast of the process. The result is that antiquated courses of study and curriculum guides are rewritten and revised with minimal benefit to the classroom teacher. Furthermore, such materials end up on a teacher's desk or shelf because of insufficient relevance to the teacher or student.

Necessity for systematic curriculum planning. As a curriculum designer, it is important that the supervisor/administrator establish a plan for systematic curriculum revision. First, this implies that the supervisor/administrator is aware of curriculum materials currently available and of their effectiveness in the classroom. Following this assessment of the "state of the art," the supervisor should develop a long-range systems approach for curriculum development. A systems approach is merely an organized procedure for instructional development to help assure that key components are identified and essential feedback provided in the design. Concern for a systems approach to curriculum development has recently received renewed interest, especially in vocational education. The remainder of this section will be devoted to ideas which the business educator might consider in designing vocational curriculum.

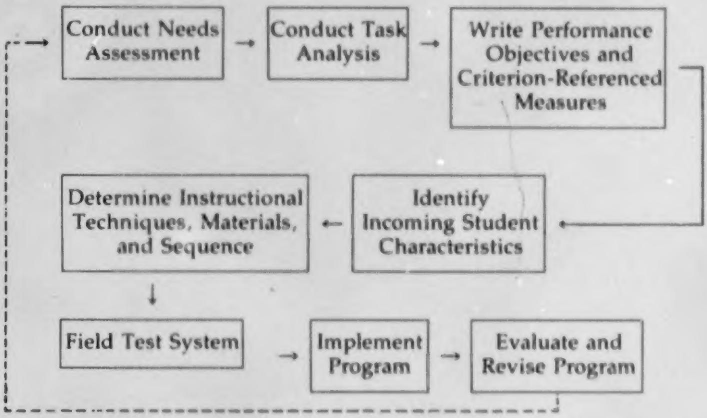
A systematic curriculum development process. The first step in any systematic approach to curriculum development involves assessment. A needs assessment permits the individual to determine what occupational areas are in greatest need of development to serve students and community more effectively. Based upon the results of this assessment, a detailed task analysis should be completed reflecting individual worker tasks related to the occupational area. Once these steps have been accomplished, the tasks can then be developed and written as performance objectives and criterion-referenced measures.

Performance objectives should spell out exactly what students will be able to do upon completion of the instruction. They should focus on learner capabilities that can be measured. Criterion-referenced measures directly related to the performance objectives should then indicate whether a student has or has not mastered each performance goal. The major advantage of criterion-referenced measures is that the student can be evaluated according to predetermined job standards rather than compared with other students.

The curriculum designer should then consider and identify student characteristics and abilities. This will help facilitate diagnosing students and prescribing instruction. Once this step has been completed, the instructional scope and sequence and appropriate materials and techniques must be organized in an attempt to carry out the performance objectives. This portion of the curriculum design procedures is possibly the most important and time-consuming, yet critical to the entire process in providing quality instruction. It is also the component that provides for the unique differences in teaching techniques. It allows individual creativity to surface upon a strong foundation of occupational content.

Many times this is where the curriculum process stops; it may not provide for any changes or weaknesses in the program. Any systematic approach should, however, provide for field testing so that feedback is provided for building quality into the program. Next, the curriculum should be implemented with the support and guidance of the supervisor/administrator. And finally, continuous evaluation and revision should occur as a result of the feedback from teachers, students, parents, and the employment community.

The following diagram outlines key components that might be included in a competency-based instructional system for vocational education programs.


Conduct Needs Assessment
Conduct Task Analysis
Write Performance Objectives and Criterion-Referenced Measures
Identify Incoming Student Characteristics
Determine Instructional Techniques, Materials, and Sequence
Field Test System
Implement Program
Evaluate and Revise Program

—*Resource Guide for Performance-Based Word Processing Instruction*, Department of Industrial Education, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 1977, p. 12.

The instructional systems approach is a dynamic process that strives to meet the unique needs of the students for whatever educational goals they are pursuing. The individual responsible for supervising and administering the business education program must be the driving force behind any curriculum change that might occur. Therefore, it becomes imperative for that individual to become extremely knowledgeable about curriculum design techniques and procedures. This individual also needs to adopt a system or model for effecting change in the curriculum process whether it be some predetermined model or one developed by the individual.

EFFECTIVENESS AS A PLANNER

Adequate planning can never be overemphasized, even though many supervisors/administrators feel frustrated because of the time and paperwork involved. Without a plan, however, there is likely to be little or no direction. As a result, we are less efficient, are unable to provide quality services, use financial and human resources poorly, are unable to take advantage of state and federal funds, and basically run a mismanaged operation.

The program plan. The effective supervisor/administrator of business education must be concerned with two broad types of plans. One of these is concerned with the specific program and should address student enrollments, facilities, employment demands, economic conditions, budgetary constraints, and other elements directly related to the operation of the total business education program. For this type of planning the supervisor/administrator must be knowledgeable about local, state, and federal legislation affecting the program. The planner should understand how to make use of funds available under the law and how to meet the objectives and activities required by the legislation. Unfortunately, many business educators are not aware of funding opportunities available to them and consequently the funds are lost to other subject areas or not used at all. Other supervisors/administrators do not want to be bothered or feel that the added paperwork is not worth the funds or problems faced in gaining approval. If supervisors/administrators will, however, initiate proper planning procedures by projecting activities in annual and long-range plans, by developing their ideas and sharing them with the appropriate individuals, funds can usually be made available.

The self-evaluation plan. Another type of planning vital to the supervisory/administrative function is a self-evaluation plan. A self-evaluation is extremely important, and whether or not it is required, it helps the planner set goals reasonably attainable. Three possible categories of goals may be identified in a self-evaluation plan: personal improvement goals, interpersonal improvement goals, and activity goals.

Personal improvement goals include items aimed at furthering one's education through both formal and informal educational processes. Interpersonal improvement goals are those expected to help an individual in dealing with other employees, teachers, principals, or others with whom he or she comes in contact. These goals are aimed at the improvement of working relationships—trying to understand teachers with whom others find it difficult to work or becoming a better listener and group participant.

The third category of self-evaluation goals should address specific program activities to be accomplished. These goals might include such matters as the development of curriculum for a particular course, providing for a special in-service activity for the staff, work associated with an advisory committee, or any other activity directly related to job performance.

It should be pointed out that program planning is only one of several forms of planning expected of a supervisor/administrator. It is, however, the form frequently overlooked or shunted aside as a result of duties that may appear to be more pressing or of greater program significance.

EFFECTIVENESS AS A PROFESSIONAL

For any group to survive, regardless of its purpose or cause, there must be commitment of time, money, and energy of those who comprise the group. Without this support, the group will eventually flounder and dissolve. Business education organizations are no exception to this general premise.

The supervisor/administrator plays a key role in the success and effectiveness of our professional organizations. This person must be a leader and pacesetter. He or she must provide both stimulation and encouragement for others to make a contribution to the welfare and growth of the profession.

Opportunities for professional growth. Our various local, state, regional, and national business education organizations provide an unusual opportunity for purpose and unity in the profession. Through these organizations all business educators can find identity in a profession, be exposed to new ideas, and contribute personally to the improvement of the educational field. The supervisor/administrator should encourage participation not only through membership and program participation but also through contributions to the professional journals, service as officers, and general service to the association and profession.

It is equally important that a supervisor/administrator and teachers support business-related and civic groups. The Administrative Management Society, International Word Processing Association, and numerous other business and civic organizations provide unusual opportunities for the supervisor/administrator to keep current on what is happening in "the field." Furthermore, these organizations are likely to open doors to student job placement, part-time cooperative work experience, in-service teacher education, and the support of youth organizations.

Professional responsibility to youth organizations. Professional responsibility to youth organizations and their activities are of equal significance to program effectiveness. The supervisor/administrator must recognize the unique contributions of these youth organizations and to the development of students. Furthermore, he or she should encourage the incorporation of the activities of these organizations in business education classrooms as well as support the use of time and funds for local, state, and national activities. Through such personal service, the supervisor/administrator will set the tone and example for teachers to follow.

SUMMARY

The effective supervisor/administrator of any business education program must recognize the need for a variety of personal qualifications. These include the ability to utilize human relations skills effectively, to provide program leadership, to demonstrate knowledge of curriculum design and processes, to provide the stimulus for innovation, to plan effectively, and to exemplify dedication to the profession. Lacking in any of these important qualities, the supervisor/administrator must set personal goals that will help to develop these essential capabilities.

The supervisor/administrator will undoubtedly approach the job initially with previous knowledge and skills gained through professional training as well as through previous teaching and work experience. It is important to recognize that prior experience in the occupational field, in teaching, and with some levels of supervision or administration are all desirable pluses. It is equally important to realize, however, that these qualities alone do not insure immediate effectiveness or success. To become truly effective, a supervisor must be an unusually progressive and resourceful individual, aggressive as an educational leader and program designer, planner, and implementer. He or she, furthermore, must constantly search for and experiment with instructional pedagogy and media and provide encouragement for teachers to do the same. This individual must gain the confidence and support of colleagues and possess the capacity and skill necessary to motivate others to become a more effective force in the business education classroom and profession.

PART III

Current Practices

CHAPTER 20

Factors in the Selection of a Supervisor/ Administrator of Business Education

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All complex organizations are interested in improving their efficiency and effectiveness. They want to maintain themselves, and they are determined to improve their programs and services. In order to accomplish this task, it is necessary that some process of leadership be organized to allow for the development of a program that will provide for ongoing cooperative involvements by individuals in their efforts to provide a good educational program.

Good educational programs don't just happen, but result from a planned process. One of the major components of a viable educational program is adequate and effective administration and supervision.

There is a similarity in the definition of the words "administration" and "supervision." The majority of educational writers define supervision as a part of administration and speak of persons involved in administration and supervision as being educational leaders. Eye, Netzer, and Kreg, in their publication *Supervision of Instruction*, indicate that: "Supervision is that phase of school administration which deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of educational service."[1]

Swanson defines educational administration as:

> . . . the process of planning, organizing, and operating an educational activity. There must be some organized manner for allocating the financial, material, and personnel resources which are available to an activity. There must be some method of developing policy, coordinating activities, and assessing the achievements of the use of these resources in relation to the goals of the activity. This process is administration.[2]

The participation of administrators in supervisory activities can be seen from the discussion presented by Marks, Stoops, and King-Stoops when they point out that:

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[1] Eye, Glen E.; Netzer, Lenore A.; and Kreg, Robert D. *Supervision of Instruction*. New York: Harper and Row, 1965. p. 12.

[2] American Vocational Association. *Instruments and Procedures for the Evaluation of Vocational/Technical Education Institutions and Programs*. Washington, D.C.: the Association, December 1971. p. 47.

> The term supervisor refers to any individual rendering supervisory services, including the supervising principal, the assistant principal, the department head, the assistant dean, the dean, the specialist-consultant, and the assistant consultant or master teacher consultant.[3]

In order to set some type of framework for a discussion of factors involved in the selection of a business education administrator or supervisor, the two words will be used synonymously. The words are interrelated when one discusses the total area of business education. The factors to be considered in the selection of a business education administrator or supervisor are similar.

The business education supervisor must assume a role of leadership for the entire business education program. This responsibility includes the total curriculum and all other aspects of the business education offerings. The business education administrator must coordinate the work of the entire staff. He/she should possess the knowledge to be able to assist staff with the selection of the necessary equipment and materials and have the ability to bring new teaching methods to the entire curriculum.

The supervisor is in a position to be the most effective individual to develop professional teaching competencies and to stimulate constructive change in the business program. In many cases, the supervisor can bring about the success or failure of a total area curriculum. The business education supervisor is an instructional and curriculum specialist who must concentrate on the responsibility to improve the quality of instruction and, in addition, be involved in the improvement and development of instruction.

The supervisor, in attaining these objectives, must have the ability to contribute to a total team effort. The supervisor's duties are comprehensive and the dimensions of the job require the need for the careful selection of a program of planned orientation for any individual who is given the responsibility to perform in the capacity of an educational administrator at either the city, state, or national levels.

THE PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF A SUPERVISOR/ADMINISTRATOR OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

A survey of literature indicates that there is a lack of agreement among professional educators as to the role assigned to the educational supervisor. This is reflected in state certification requirements. One-third of the states do not presently have certification requirements for supervisors. Certification does not necessarily assure that competent individuals will be employed, but it does assist in providing requirements that may lead to the possession of the required competencies by the supervisor.

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[3] Marks, James R.; Stoops, Emery; and King-Stoops, Joyce. *Handbook of Educational Supervision, A Guide for the Practitioner.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. p. 3.

There should be separate and distinct certification requirements for supervisory personnel. This would make it possible to select supervisors from a qualified group similar to what is presently available in the selection of guidance counselors, school principals, and school superintendents.

The professional qualifications of a supervisor of business education are not significantly different from those of any effective educational leader. As mentioned earlier, if a supervisor is to be effective, he/she must understand and have a thorough knowledge of the total business education program. This requires a high level of educational and technical preparation.

The individuals selected for supervisory positions may have varying backgrounds and may not meet the same set of standards, but there will be a common core of preparation and experience that will provide for the best possible leadership potential. There are some general criteria that can be listed.

Educational background. At the present time there is a wide variation of educational programs that prepare personnel for supervisory positions. Some of the programs parallel those developed for school principals and school superintendents. Others have specific courses required that attempt to have planned or desired behavioral outcomes. Good systematic offerings are lacking, and the individual is allowed to decide whether or not he/she has the type of background necessary to pursue a supervisory career. However, there are some educational competencies that an effective business education supervisor should possess.

A business education supervisor should possess a minimum of a master's degree in business education or a closely related field, with a major portion of the educational program in a curriculum that provides a thorough knowledge of the total business education offerings at all levels of education. The supervisor should have a comprehensive understanding of all the separate courses taught in the area of business education, should be competent in each of the skill subjects that are a part of the office education requirements, and should be thoroughly familiar with the basic business areas and all the related programs. Business administration, accounting, and other business programs should be a part of the total knowledge base required to provide the necessary program leadership. A knowledge of the distributive education area, as well as an understanding of all the areas included in vocational education, should be essential for the business education administrator.

If a program supervisor is limited to one individual, the business education supervisor should be a generalist in that he/she possess a knowledge of the total area rather than being a specialist in a limited area. When more than one supervisor is employed, there may be a need for individuals with in-depth training in one or more specific areas.

The business education supervisor should have completed an extensive program of professional education that would assure the necessary background to be:

1. Capable of promoting in-service improvement of instructors;
2. Competent in analyzing curriculum content, technical information, and other subject matter;
3. Capable of preparing activities designed to improve instructional competence;
4. Competent to assist instructional staff in the selection of facilities, equipment, and instructional materials;
5. Capable of evaluating instruction and of identifying strengths and limitations;
6. Knowledgeable about the role and importance of vocational/technical education in economic development and community growth.[4]

The business education administrator has the responsibility to plan a comprehensive program that will expand and maintain a broad knowledge and understanding of the world. This will require a continuous plan of continuing education, including attendance at organized seminars, workshops and college courses, in addition to general and professional reading.

Teaching background. A person should not be employed as an administrator of any business education program unless there is evidence of varied teaching experience. In too many cases, not enough attention is paid to the kind of teaching experience the administrator has had. The experience should have included the teaching of a majority of the subjects that are a part of the business education curriculum. A thorough familiarity with the distributive education program should be an additional requirement for the supervisor.

The business education administrator should be a master teacher. Experience in secondary education, adult education, and higher education is desirable. The supervisor should possess the quality of being able to work effectively with adults as well as children and the ability to organize and direct the total business education program.

The good administrator must be a talented person. In the area of administration, there is room for only the advanced and experienced teacher. The administrator of any business education program must have the ability to understand the total program, and teaching experience must be required for any position involving business education leadership responsibilities.

Occupational background. An important factor in the success of any educational program is the leadership ability and competence of the administrator of that particular program. The lack of adequate facilities and equipment can be compensated for by experience and competent leadership. An important requirement for any business education administrator is occupational experience.

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[4] American Vocational Association, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

There is no valid or reliable empirical evidence available to indicate that a teacher or supervisor will be better because of occupational experience. However, the vast majority of practitioners strongly believe that occupational competence is necessary for any vocational business education teachers and certainly for any vocational business education administrator.

Most states presently have two types of certification for business education personnel. Many business education teachers begin their teaching careers by teaching nonvocational business education courses, and they are certified to teach in this area. The business teacher instructing vocational business courses is required to have a specified number of hours or years of occupational experience. Most state departments of education require from three to five years of occupational experience for vocational teacher certification.

The business education supervisor should have some degree of occupational experience. It is important that the experience be business experience and related to the area of responsibility, that it be recent, and that it reflect the latest business practices. The experience should have involved the type and kinds of skills and competencies related to those being taught by the present business education teacher.

The criticism constantly made of business education teachers and administrators is that they fail to provide students with relevant knowledge and contemporary skills necessary for successful employment. It is said that the business education teacher and administrator do not keep abreast of the changes taking place in the business world. Current and related occupational experience will help to alleviate this constant charge.

Business teacher education programs must develop curriculums that allow their graduates to explore varied alternatives. Business education teachers cannot teach in an area of specialization without the knowledge and skill to perform in the occupation they are training their students to enter. The business education administrator is going to have to become "professional" in the business world the same as in the education world. The business education administrator may be required to reach the status of the Certified Professional Secretary (CPS).

ESSENTIAL PERSONAL TRAITS AND CHARACTERISTICS

In a study conducted by Oeland and Maxwell, the five most frequently mentioned strengths that teachers should have were skill in subject areas, good human relations, experience and training, willingness to work, and organizational ability.[5] These same characteristics apply to the business education administrator. The business education administrator must be an effective leader, must know and understand his/her place and function in the total business education program, and should know the requirements of strong leadership. The successful business education program must have effective supervision, and the business education administrator is the key to an effective program.

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[5] Oeland, Caroline A., and Maxwell, Gerald W. "High School Administrators' Opinions of Business Teacher Candidates." *Business Education Forum* 25:38-40; December 1970.

Research completed in the area of personality characteristics has not been extensive and nothing conclusive is available. There exists a wide range of personality traits in individuals presently employed in administrative roles.

Most research studies indicate that leaders are generally more intelligent than followers. They have more formal education, are more extroverted, more socially mature, more self-confident, more aggressive, and possess more emotional stability. From the information available, one concludes that a single pattern of characteristics or traits presently exists that can be considered common to all administrators or leaders.

In order to be a successful business education administrator, a good relationship must be established with all co-workers. To have good relationships, the administrator should—

1. Be informed, keeping abreast of what is going on in business education and in education in general.
2. Be an effective speaker and think through what he/she is going to say.
3. Be open-minded, listening to what others have to say and considering ideas and recommendations.
4. Show an interest in the work of others and offer assistance where there are opportunities to be of help.
5. Praise others and pass on compliments when they are deserved.
6. Be a good organizer and plan carefully the things to be accomplished.
7. Support the action and decisions of fellow workers.
8. Allow others to participate in making decisions.
9. Possess leadership traits, including courtesy, firmness, and high integrity.
10. Make all wishes clearly known, letting co-workers know precisely what is expected in the way of accomplishment.

It is important for an administrator to be able to recognize and anticipate problems that may arise. The supervisor must be able to find solutions and have the ability to win the confidence of co-workers. Individuals who have been the most successful in leadership roles possess definite personal characteristics. These personal characteristics, not necessarily listed in order of importance, are:

1. A thorough knowledge and skill of the job responsibilities assigned
2. The ability to work with others—social competence
3. An understanding and knowledge of the dynamics necessary for effective leadership
4. A definite respect for one's own judgment

5. The ability to make sensible and fast decisions after having considered several alternatives
6. The ability to design meaningful objectives and the skill necessary to put the objectives into effect
7. A thorough knowledge of organizational procedures in order that work goals can be completed
8. An understanding and knowledge of the individuals who should be contacted in order to get the job done
9. The ability and willingness to delegate responsibility whenever necessary
10. Enthusiasm and motivation—a desire to be successful and a strong interest in facilitating instruction in order that good teaching and learning can be meaningful and effective.

The individual employed as the business education administrator should have a proper balance of the necessary traits to be a successful leader. The person must be sensitive to the feelings of others and at the same time be helpful, consistent in dealings with others, and firm in judgments and decisions.

Professional requirements. In addition to the educational requirements and the necessary personal traits, the business education administrator should be a professional educator. He/she must keep abreast of all developments in business education. Every administrator should read professional journals and attend and participate in professional seminars, workshops, and conferences, in addition to maintaining an interest in current events and planning a reading program that provides a broad background.

The good business education administrator is an active member of the profession and holds membership in several professional organizations, both in business and general education. He/she recognizes the value of community service and is aware of responsibilities to superiors. A good administrator is honest and cooperative in all relationships with administrators. The professional life of an administrator is one of continuous growth through study in order to acquire additional skills in areas of specialization. The good business education administrator accepts all the responsibilities of the profession, takes pride in being able to provide leadership in business education, and strives to improve the quality and standards of all business education programs.

The requirements for an administrator of any business education program are basically similar for a city, state, or national responsibility. The major differences are in the degree of responsibilities. There may be a difference in the size of programs and the number of individuals involved, but the leadership characteristics necessary for a city business education administrator are identical to those of a state or national business education administrator.

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SUMMARY

The best programs in business education have outstanding administrators who understand that their responsibilities are to assist individuals in setting new goals and help them solve their educational problems. The business education administrator's main objective is the improvement of instruction. He/she should be a change agent and have a clear understanding of the total business education program, plus realizing that good administration and educational leadership are synonymous.

In order to be an effective leader, the business education administrator must possess certain leadership traits. They include adequate educational and technical competencies, outstanding personal characteristics, and a sincere interest in his chosen profession.

The selection factors discussed in this chapter are not meant to be all-inclusive. However, the business education administrator who possesses a majority of the qualifications presented should be able to provide any business education program with strong, effective, and efficient leadership.

Business education must adapt to the changing conditions and requirements of our total society. There is a need to examine our present offerings and to make the necessary changes. Good leaders will provide the plans and procedures required to make business education the kind of program that will develop outstanding citizens.

CHAPTER 21

Responsibilities of a National Administrator of Business Education

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Supervision in business education at the local and state levels has been in existence since before the turn of the twentieth century, but not at the federal level. The direction for business education at the national level came from the business education professional associations.

Prior to the enactment of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Public Law 88-210), President John F. Kennedy stated in his message to Congress on American Education on February 20, 1961, that although the national Vocational Education Acts were sound and sufficiently broad to provide a basis for meeting future needs, they should be reviewed and reevaluated in light of the technological changes that had occurred in all occupations. The President requested that the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare convene an advisory group from the educational profession, labor, industry, and agriculture, as well as the lay public, together with representatives from the Departments of Agriculture and Labor, to review and evaluate the current national Vocational Education Acts and make recommendations for improving and redirecting the program. As a result, the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare appointed a Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education in 1961. The Panel made recommendations and stated its belief that preparing for office occupations should be included among the federally reimbursed vocational education programs.

Relationships with state personnel. As a result of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, federal funds may be used for business and office education. A state plan makes it possible for each state to develop its vocational programs with due regard for its own geographical, educational, economic, and social conditions, problems, and relationships. The federal government exercises minimum control over the vocational program in the states, and the state plans provide the framework within which the nation's program of vocational education is conducted. These plans must be approved by the Commissioner of Education before the states may receive federal assistance, and the amount of each state grant is computed on a formula basis.

At the federal level, business education is administered with other occupational areas in a State Programs and Services Branch of the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, which is in the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education of the Office of Education under the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The Bureau is charged with making grants to states for vocational and technical education. It sponsors applied research and demonstration projects and maintains close liaison with the national vocational student organizations.

The Division of Vocational and Technical Education administers programs authorized under the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, Public Law 90-576, as amended, which are designed to maintain, extend, and improve existing programs and develop new programs to meet the vocational education needs of the nation. It provides national leadership and direction in the various occupational fields and coordinates programs with other bureaus within the Office of Education and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, other government agencies, and the public and private sector of the nation.

The State Programs and Services Branch provides national leadership, guidance, and assistance to all states and territories in the planning, development, implementation, and evaluation of vocational and technical education programs. It supports and provides leadership to all vocational education student organizations as an integral part of the vocational education instructional program at the secondary, postsecondary, and adult levels. It provides professional expertise in the Office of Education's designated 15 occupational clusters, of which business and office education is one cluster. It provides services in reviewing, analyzing, and monitoring curriculum and research projects, as well as in the area of educational professional development.

Areas of responsibility. The major responsibilities of the U.S. Office of Education's representative for business and office education are improvements, innovations, and broad evaluations of business education programs as they relate to the total vocational education delivery system of the nation. Activities include research, curriculum development, and program implementation in a wide range of complex occupational areas within vocational education. These activities include consultation with federal, state, regional, and local education officials and with leaders from business, industry, and labor.

Typical activities. The activities and responsibilities at the federal and national level involve administration and coordination rather than supervision. Under the present and new legislation, the U.S. Office of Education is charged with providing professional program leadership throughout the nation to those who work in creative program developments in curriculum, teacher education, career information, instructional materials or methods, research, supervision, administration, and program promotion in business education. Central and regional office personnel, professional association executives, state personnel, potential employers, and concerned lay persons are among those with whom the federal administrators are involved.

Activities at the federal level include responding to inquiries sent to the U.S. Office of Education and congressional requests pertaining to business education. Other typical activities include coordinating information and activities among states, regions, and national and international business education leaders on new concepts for organizing instructional programs that will serve to satisfy current and emerging business career orientation and development needs.

The business education representative provides national leadership, advice, and guidance to the two national business and office student organizations which serve those preparing for social, economic, and educational competencies by formulating appropriate actions to be taken by the business and office program service area in contributing to solutions for problems. The representative serves as the national advisor to the two organizations and serves as a member of their executive boards.

The national representative of the U.S. Office of Education for business and office education provides professional leadership, consultation, and advice to the Business and Office Divisional Policy and Planning Committee of the American Vocational Association and serves as a member of this national committee. The representative also works closely with the National Business Education Association on proposals, projects, studies, analysis of results and outcomes, trends, and major changes in existing business and office education programs and methodology.

Other responsibilities include:

1. Providing consultative service, advice and guidance in the initiation, implementation, and evaluation of projects, workshops, clinics, and seminars sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education, those sponsored by professional associations, and others sponsored for business and office education
2. Providing national leadership by working with other government agencies responsive to the needs of program development, such as those concerned with labor laws, specialized training efforts, publications, and other related activities with agencies such as the Department of Transportation, Air Force, Department of Labor, Navy, Army, Internal Revenue Services, Library of Congress, State Department, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Civil Service Commission, Veterans Administration, and National Alliance of Businessmen
3. Initiating activities in research, curriculum development, and educational professional development; advising and serving as a member of national planning committees and national advisory committees; developing work statements and criteria; analyzing, reviewing, and critiquing developmental materials; and approving completed materials for business and office education.
4. Providing professional leadership by preparing papers and articles for professional magazines, by preparing and delivering speeches and papers, and by writing for periodicals in the field of business education.

5. Serving as U.S. Office of Education specialist responsible for evaluating, guiding, advising, and coordinating the improvement of business education programs; disseminating information on program and office standards, job requirements, and criteria for approval and accreditation of program components related to business education
6. Analyzing official state curriculum guides, policies, and procedures in business and office occupations
7. Serving as the coordinator in determining Division and Bureau priorities. The representative prepares special reports on business education for hearings.

Implementation of legislative mandates. Provision for federal assistance to business education came into existence with the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. Specific rules and regulations stipulate the type of activities permissible under this legislation. New legislation that has recently been passed, the Education Amendments of 1976, Public Law 94-482, also provides for federal assistance to business education. This legislation is specific in its mandates. Evaluation and accountability are evident, and the U.S. Office of Education is charged with the evaluation of each state's vocational education program, to be completed within a five-year period. To be eligible for funding, each state must submit an annual program plan and accountability report. During the five-year period of the state plan, the state will be granted funds to evaluate the effectiveness of each assisted program and for the state administration of vocational education supported programs. "Administration" is defined as those activities necessary for the state to properly carry out its performance under the Act, including supervision.

To be eligible to receive funds, a state must maintain a general application on file with the Commissioner. This general application includes the assurance that the state will give priority, in distributing funds, to (1) economically depressed areas and areas with high unemployment rates which are unable to meet their vocational needs without federal assistance, and to (2) programs which are new to the areas to be served and which meet new and emerging needs. Each local education agency and postsecondary institution receiving vocational education funds must establish a local advisory council composed of members of the general public to provide advice on job needs and relevancy of courses to those needs.

The Commissioner is to transmit to the state board each year an analysis of the state's annual plan. The Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education is to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of programs in at least 10 states per fiscal year. These reports are to be complemented by fiscal audits of the same states during the same time period. Each state is to evaluate the effectiveness of the vocational education funded programs. Programs which purport to impart entry-level job skills are to be evaluated, according to the extent to which program completers find employment in related occupations and are considered well-trained by their employers.

Curriculum development projects cannot be contracted for by the states unless the applicant can demonstrate a reasonable probability that the contract will result in improved teaching techniques or in materials that will be used in a substantial number of learning situations within five years after completion of the contract. The federal share for curriculum projects is 100 percent.

A task force has been established to write rules and regulations for the new legislation. When the rules and regulations have been completed, the public will be given an opportunity for input before they are published in the Federal Register and become factual.

SUMMARY

Business education has come of age by being recognized as one of the occupational fields preparing the greatest number of people for the labor market. Business education has contributed greatly to the employment needs of the nation. The office worker is essential to most business, industry, and government functions in the world in which we live today.

The representative at the federal level is more of an administrator and spokesman than a supervisor. The functions and activities vary, but the primary responsibility is that of providing leadership and bringing business education under the administrative functions of the U.S. Office of Education so that they receive professional assistance and financial support.

CHAPTER 22

Responsibilities of a State Supervisor/ Administrator of Business Education

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The great new fact is that a society of organizations holds institutions and their executives not only accountable for quantities—whether of goods, or of cures, or of degree recipients—it holds its institutions collectively accountable for the quality of life. This is, above all, a new opportunity for the organization and its executives, a new dimension of performance and results—but also a new and rather frightening challenge. Peter F. Drucker.

In the real sense of Mr. Drucker's definition, the state supervisor of business and office occupations in 1977 faces the continuing challenge of "accountability." There is a uniqueness in today's responsibilities over those of previous years—to keep pace with the increasing velocity of change as it occurs in the business and educational settings. Educators cannot discover these changes by merely consulting with each other, but rather by going to the source of such changes.

The responsibility of today's supervisor to adjust to changes in the business world, to interpret and follow state and federal laws relating to business education, and to assume a leadership role for the teachers' and students' advantage is, at best, a difficult assignment. Simply stated, the role of the state supervisor of business and office occupations (some states combine the role of business and office with distributive education) is to know what is going on in business education in schools across the state. This includes all areas of business education such as what is occurring in preservice and in-service education, why schools are doing what they are doing, and how these activities relate to school, state, and federal business education objectives.

The business education supervisor should project a philosophy of business education to teachers and administrators that will include the following:

1. "The business educator should have a sound educational philosophy which recognizes that education establishes a set of ideals, values, and attitudes. He or she should also represent a positive model of these values."[1]

2. Teachers will be held accountable to see that students who have selected business education as a career goal have mastered the skills as

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[1] *General Curriculum Guide for Business Education in Utah.* Salt Lake City; Utah State Board of Education, 1974. pp. 2, 20.

identified in the business world and are a marketable product for entry-level positions at the time of graduation.

3. "Time is no longer the primary fixed variable in a vocational program. Individualized programs should be initiated that allow students to progress in an independent manner."[2]

4. The classroom is no longer acceptable as the "only" area for training. The work setting through cooperative experience with business and industry is "where it's at" in today's educational training.

5. Increased communication and articulation in all grade levels and educational settings within the state, particularly from junior to senior high school and from senior high school to postsecondary institutions relating to articulated curriculum, are essential.

Education role defined. Legislatures prescribe, in most states, that the role of the state department of public instruction is to provide the vehicle for establishing, maintaining, and improving instruction in the public school system. State boards of education have taken great latitude in their interpretation of this mandate. Some boards exercise unusual jurisdiction over the most minute details of the education process, while others exercise only limited central control over the local educational system.

Across the country today, the cry for decentralization of government and state control is common. Local school boards are exercising more and more of their assumed rights, and local school superintendents are requesting more say on how their educational dollar is spent along with a relaxation of state and federal controls. In a limited number of states, subject area specialists find it difficult to perform certain given responsibilities without specific invitation by local school districts.

On December 18, 1963, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Vocational Education Act and included business education as a reimbursable area of vocational education. This Act altered the role of business education in the public school system, since most states at that time moved the business education division at the state level under the direction of the state director for vocational education. The state supervisors of business education assumed additional responsibilities at this time including that of supervising federal and state vocational funds going to the local educational agencies.

MAJOR AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Today, 14 years after the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the following areas of responsibility have been generally assigned to supervisors or administrators of business education by the chief state school officer:

1. Assume responsibility for interpretation of educational legislation at the state and federal level pertaining directly to the area of business education.

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[2] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

2. Assume responsibility for development of a statewide plan in business education based on clearly defined short- and long-range objectives. This plan provides the opportunity for all local educational agencies to maintain an up-to-date curriculum and program design consistent with changing technology.

3. Develop and disseminate statewide curriculum materials. Continual updating of these materials is essential for teachers to be current with research in the field. Provision must be made for appropriate in-service workshops to examine with teachers the most effective use of the curriculum materials.

4. Analyze business education programs at all levels within the state to determine if they are meeting the short- and long-range objectives of the state and, if not, to redirect efforts toward these objectives.

5. Serve as state chairperson of the student organization (FBLA-PBL or OEA) and encourage each local education agency (LEA) to include the organization as an integral part of the business curriculum.

6. Work in harmony with teacher education programs within the state, including actively participating in the development of statewide certification requirements.

7. Initiate or cooperate with the local college or university programs in research activities to improve the quality of learning for teachers and students.

8. Provide consultant help from teacher educators and state department personnel to local educational agencies at all levels upon request or as needed according to the state department.

9. Develop program review materials for the purpose of evaluating local programs systematically.

10. Give advice and assistance in maintaining federal or state financially supported programs.[3]

11. Determine where federal, state, and special vocational funds may be used most effectively.

12. Work closely with the Department of Employment Security to determine where greatest manpower needs are and emphasize this information to the LEA for program updating.

13. Work with teachers and administrators in formulating business advisory committees at the local level.

14. Solicit the help of members of the business community in defining what training should be made available by the schools to satisfy the manpower needs of the state.

15. Recommend appropriate equipment and facilities to complement the particular programs throughout the state.

16. Meet with all first-year teachers to familiarize them with the help available through the state supervisor's office in their assignment.

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[3] Thomas, Ellis. *An Analysis of State Supervisors and Leadership of Business and Office Education with Implications for and Recommendations to the State of New Jersey.* Doctor's thesis. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1971. pp. 20–22, 26–28, 118, 119.

This would include informing the teachers about financing through regular and special funding.

17. Review, select, and disseminate to teachers any articles from the profession that can update and assist them in their teaching responsibilities.

18. Plan and administer conferences and workshops that will be enriching and growing experiences for the participants.

19. Be a catalyst, a disseminator of information concerning strong business education programs found either within or outside the state.

20. Consult with local and district officials in behalf of teachers for additional consideration on reasonable numbers of students and classes.

21. Emphasize and support nonvocational business education courses as well as vocational business courses.

22. Communicate with other state supervisors of business education to benefit from their experiences and recommendations and share with other states materials as they are developed.

23. Coordinate the approval of textbooks in business education for state adoption.

24. Assist in the search for qualified teachers in business education upon request by local educational agencies.

25. Assure that those who teach business education subjects have been properly credentialed according to state school law before they begin teaching any business subject.

The above list will be similar to those duties of the majority of supervisors; however, because of state size, specific direction by state legislatures, and direction by chief state school officers, the responsibilities may differ slightly. According to Mercer and Smith's study, there is a tremendous variance in the number of secondary schools from state to state. Their study reported that one state supervisor had over 1,500 secondary schools and 7,000 business teachers under his direction with over 500,000 students taking business classes. In another case, a state supervisor worked with as few as 35 schools and 51 teachers with 518 students taking business classes.[4] In many states, program specialists have additional assignments throughout the agency, with some of these assignments having little relationship to the area of business education. A limited number of state departments have moved away from the subject area specialist and have assigned personnel to several areas of responsibility, only one of which may be the responsibility of looking after the business education area.[5]

PRIORITY STATEMENT OF ACTIVITIES AND DUTIES

There is general agreement among supervisors that a prime responsibility exists for the development of a statewide plan in business education based on clearly defined, short- and long-range goals. In-service training for business teachers is one of the areas of responsibility that does and should receive high priority on their time schedule. Also of high priority on the list of responsibilities for a business supervisor is visiting school programs to observe, consult, and supervise to improve business education within state schools. This objective is accomplished by a thorough study of the total business program, periodic evaluation, and follow-up on recommendations for improvement.

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[4] Mercer, Russell, and Smith, Patsy C. "Administrative and Supervisory Activities of State Supervisors." *Business Education Forum* 29:27; May 1975.

[5] Smith, James W. *Critical Requirements for an Effective State Consultant of Business Education as Determined by Analysis of Critical Incidents.* Doctor's thesis. Greeley: Colorado State College, 1965.

The state supervisor is looked to for leadership in selecting committees of teachers for development of curriculum guides. Of paramount importance is the supervisor's responsibility to keep up to date on research in business education and to be sure that the guides reflect the most current thinking on a given subject.

One area briefly mentioned above in the assigned list of a supervisor's responsibilities is that of serving as state chairperson of the vocational student organization. During the past three years, increased emphasis has come from the U.S. Office of Education under the leadership of T. H. Bell, then the U.S. Commissioner of Education, and Virginia Y. Trotter, the associate director of HEW. In part, their statement, released in September 1974, stated:

> Recognizing that the past performance and demonstrated potential of these organizations are compatible with the overall purposes and objectives of education today, the United States Office of Education strongly endorses their objectives and seeks to involve their thinking in the development of our policies and plans. . . .
>
> . . . it is our belief that increased efforts on the part of state education agencies to recognize and encourage the growth and development of these vocational student organizations are highly important and deserve the support of all leaders in American education.

Since the release of that statement, the vocational student organizations in business, FBLA-PBL and OEA, have taken the challenge to strengthen their long-range goals and objectives and to encourage more schools to include an active student organization as an integral part of the instructional program. This support by the U.S. Office has increased the demands of the state supervisor to encourage more schools within a given state to accept chapters. This emphasis has also caused the supervisors to encourage teacher education institutions to include units of instruction on the "how to" for potential business teachers.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH CITY, STATE, AND NATIONAL SUPERVISORS AND ADMINISTRATION

The state supervisor, because of contacts with city, school, state, and national supervisors, has an opportunity not only to gather current information relating to business education from each of these groups but also to volunteer the services of his or her office to assist in the improvement of programs and services across the state and country.

One example of this cooperative relationship would be to meet with representatives of each or all of these groups to review evaluative instruments or review recommended program changes.

Relationships with other state departments. In almost all state departments there is a supervisor of business and office occupations programs. In many cases, supervisors, in an attempt to strengthen their own programs, communicate freely with other state supervisors. This exchange of information can be of great benefit in terms of eliminating unnecessary duplication of expenses for experimental programs. Additional benefits include sharing information concerning curriculum development and locating out-of-state specialists to assist in conferences or workshops for local teachers. Research studies developed both by teacher education institutions and state departments are often shared between states.

Relationships with private schools. In some states, by law, supervision of the private business school comes within the area of responsibility of the state supervisor. Other states have no direct supervisory responsibility over private business schools and, therefore, may have little or no contact or relationship with them. Traditionally, because of the fact that the private business school has operated under a different financial base for program operation, the majority have taken equal, if not greater interest, in refining programs to provide the greatest training for the least cost.

The cooperative effort displayed by a state supervisor to the private institution can become beneficial. This happens not only because of a sharing of ideas about programs from state department observations in the public school system but also from the expertise available from faculties and administrators of private institutions for program and curriculum design.

Relationships with the business community. If the state supervisor of business and office occupations really believes in what is being preached concerning gaining input on how curriculum should be developed, that state supervisor will have acted in two ways: First, the supervisor will have an active state advisory committee made up of capable business representatives and will use their combined judgment as one indicator in developing business programs in the state. Second, the supervisor will work with numerous businesses in an attempt to broaden their understanding of the training programs presently being offered at the local level.

Relationships with teacher education institutions. Inasmuch as most state departments have the primary responsibility by law for developing standards for students who move through their teacher education institutions, there is an obvious advantage for both the state supervisor and teacher education administrator to establish a good working relationship. In most states, this relationship is one of mutual respect, and progressive standards in business education are developed to the advantage of not only the teacher education institution but also the students. Where this positive relationship does not exist, weak teacher education programs often result, to the great disadvantage of school districts, teachers, and students who enroll in such institutions.

Relationships with professional associations. Realizing that professional growth is essential to quality instruction in business education, all state supervisors must not only keep up to date themselves but also play a key role in keeping co-workers current professionally. Membership in the state and national business and vocational professional organizations is the minimal effort necessary by a state department representative. Beyond that comes the opportunity and responsibility to participate actively as a member of a committee or to serve, by election, as a state or national officer, if encouraged to do so. Some within the ranks, in past years, have unfortunately placed those who serve in these elected positions in the untenable position of having to defend themselves for running for such positions. Others, in growing numbers the past few years, have applauded the efforts of those who desire to make a contribution for stronger and more productive state and national organizations. The state supervisor is again in a unique position to encourage business teachers to support and contribute to continued excellence within the profession.

SUMMARY

One danger of state supervision is the tendency of some to regulate or organize to the point of reducing school programs to a "standard" pattern. By requirement, certain standards need to be developed for all schools to catch a "sense of direction"; but the tendency today, as expressed by what seems to be a majority, is to add more and more controls to the obvious disadvantage of the local program.

The supervisor of business and office occupations has a unique opportunity, in the role of consultant, administrator, and supervisor, to become an initiator of change—change as it relates to methods of instruction, change in teacher and administrative attitudes toward a more positive approach in business education at the local level, change in attitudes of superiors at the state and federal level toward stronger business education programs, and change in technology as it relates to updated equipment for use in the business education field.

The role of the state supervisor of business and office occupations is clear. The real question for the future is, "Will those who occupy these positions provide the necessary leadership and initiative to keep pace with the demands placed on them by an ever-changing business environment?"

CHAPTER 23

Responsibilities of a City Supervisor/ Administrator of Business Education

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The responsibilities of the city administrator of business education programs are even more diverse than the job titles for this position: director, supervisor, coordinator, consultant, specialist, or any of a dozen variations to these common titles. Job responsibilities may be narrowed or broadened by virtue of special assignments dictated by state or federal funding sources, by school district geographic subdivisions, or by special subject emphasis assignments such as office, distributive, career, or other curriculum subdivisions. However, regardless of title, district geographic limitations, funding requirements, or special subject assignments, the responsibilities of the city administrator of business education are determined to a large degree by the personal philosophy and moral commitment that person has for the task at hand.

There are as many differences between city business education administration positions as there are similarities. Local policies and politics, the city business environment, makeup of the student body, budgets, and the district philosophy toward business education all have an effect upon the administrator's job. The one overriding similarity is that persons filling these important positions generally are excellent classroom teachers with a broad background of training and experience in the entire office and distributive fields. They relate well with classroom activity because their interest is still there—in the business education classroom. While they have complex administrative responsibility, they see themselves more as teachers than as administrators. They tend to be more result oriented than process oriented.

TRENDS AND THE PRESENT ENVIRONMENT

Fifteen years ago there were fewer than 50 city administrators of business education. Today this number has increased to somewhere in excess of 350. Certainly the availability of special federal funding has been a major factor in this increase. In order to administer the special funds, districts have been required to staff positions to handle the necessary budgets, operate advisory committees, do student follow-up studies, initiate staff development, conduct curriculum development, and take care of other work connected with specially funded projects.

Besides the influence of special funding, positions have increased in number because of the changes in the job. Even 15 years ago there was a great deal of stability in business education. Our instructional programs were relatively static. Business teacher preparation was universally of high quality. Entering business students were reasonably well prepared, and student behavior problems were minor. Communities and school districts did not perceive that curriculum change was really needed, so innovative program modifications were relatively rare. Types of equipment were standard. Text materials were generally considered to be adequate both as to quality and quantity. Business education was a stable, standard, firm part of the secondary school programs in most metropolitan areas. A great deal has taken place in the past decade and a half to change this tranquil scene and call for increased efforts in the administration of city business education programs.

We now see a multitude of companies and agencies engaged in production of materials for instruction in business education. Equipment manufacture has not only blossomed—it has exploded. New philosophies of instruction have appeared, such as zero failure rate, competency-based instruction, team teaching, peer tutoring, the open classroom, community-based programs, street academies, and individual progress instruction. With an obvious need to gear our departments to meet the rapidly changing jobs in the business community, we have seen many totally new instructional programs develop: vocational level data processing, model office laboratories, entrepreneurship programs, merchandise handling, word processing, simulations, insurance clerk programs, bank telling, and others. Each new program demands research, curriculum development, staff training, promotion, as well as equipment and text evaluation and acquisition. Many students in city schools come to business education departments with deficiencies in math and language skills. Attendance and deportment problems are not uncommon. Special strategies must be developed to deal with special student needs. It is in this environment that most city administrators of business education function today.

City school systems have been under tremendous social and budgetary pressure over the past 15 years. While many of the social problems are less visible today than they were in the recent past, they are still there—and they still remain to be solved. City administrators of business education programs find themselves with a much more complex and demanding list of responsibilities than was true 15 years ago. They also find that their authority and power to bring about change has tended to diminish. Priorities are difficult to define and are constantly shifting. The acid test that must be applied to each of their planned activities is, "Will this effort result in the improvement of instruction?" For this, improvement of instruction, is the primary purpose for the existence of the city administrator of business education.

DEPARTMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

Upon accepting the philosophy that the major function of the local administrator of business education is to improve instruction, it then follows that the primary tasks should reflect directly upon the major segments of instruction: teaching staff, students, curriculum, supplies and instructional materials, equipment, facilities, related research, and guidance and placement.

Teaching staff. Only by being intimately involved in staff selection and assignment can a city supervisor build a strong business education department. Knowing the long-range plans of the department places this person in a unique position to structure the staff to accomplish those plans. Losing a key teacher can play havoc with a new or emerging program of instruction, so selecting people who can serve as backup instructors for key personnel is an administrative responsibility. Bringing younger staff into a building or program populated with mature staff members can provide for vital new ideas, enthusiasm, energy, and program continuity. It is essential to seek out teacher candidates who have unique work experience or educational background that will contribute to present and future department plans.

Recognizing that there continues to be a growing autonomy in city secondary school buildings, the business education administrator may need to work in nontraditional ways to have input to final selection and assignment of staff members in the department. Staffing to provide for balance as to race, ethnic origin, sex, or religion is necessary, yet the key to success in developing the highest quality business education program lies in hiring skilled, dedicated, broadly trained, enthusiastic classroom teachers.

TEACHER IN-SERVICE. Regardless of the quality of preservice training, teachers assigned to teach in city schools need in-service training. Whether a major portion of this training is made available by building department heads or is provided centrally, it must occur. District policies, departmental procedures, and specific building programs need to be reviewed. Specific teaching assignments may call for detailed sessions covering standards, procedures, materials, and methodology.

Beyond the individual teacher, the department has a responsibility to provide broad in-service training programs when entirely new instructional programs or methods are being introduced. One cannot expect a new middle school typing program to function at its optimum level simply by providing texts, desks, machines, and a course outline. A new program using individualized, competency-based instruction, for example, will not succeed unless there is intensive and comprehensive in-service training for the teachers who will be expected to use the new procedures. Germaine to in-service training is the obvious fact that, as much as is possible, the trainers should be peer teachers. Using skilled staff members in such positions builds leadership and esprit de corps.

TEACHER CONTACTS. There is no substitute for the city administrator to know staff members on an individual basis. The administrator should make every effort to become acquainted with the teachers in the department. In some cities this is extremely difficult because of the sheer size of the district. Yet, the administrator can drop into building department meetings, area meetings, curriculum or text selection committee meetings, and the like. Not only are these personal contacts valuable to the teachers, they help the administrator. Rapport is a two-way street.

DEPARTMENT COMMUNICATIONS. Periodic meetings with building department heads are used by most city administrators of business education to get staff input and as a means of transmitting information. Another effective device is the department bulletin. Issued periodically to all teachers in the department, it contains meeting calendars, announcements of local college and university courses of interest, business education association meeting dates, local text adoptions, and information on pertinent new district policies, new text and equipment releases, and the status of ongoing department projects. Only by feeling they know where the department is heading can teachers assist in meeting its objectives.

Students. Virtually every decision and activity of the city supervisor of business education must ultimately center on meeting the needs of the students served by the department. The administrator must know, at least in general terms, who the students are, what their goals and objectives are, their basic training and background, and their special needs. It is paramount that the department develop and disseminate program and course information both within the department and through existing site counseling and guidance offices. The basic and consumer business education courses in the department should, can, and do serve as foundations for advanced business training. They also can be used effectively and professionally as points from which program guidance information can be disseminated.

Community. The city administrator of business education keeps in touch with local, regional, and national trends in office and distributive occupations. Labor department statistics, as well as state employment office and local job information, serve as input to curriculum development, equipment acquisition, text selection, and many other departmental activities. It is common for the city supervisor to belong to organizations such as the local chapter of the National Secretaries Association, the Administrative Management Society, the National Sales Executives Club, and similar groups. Besides providing a great deal of up-to-date job information, these organizations afford an excellent opportunity to meet highly skilled persons who may be willing to serve on important business education advisory groups.

Along with these many activities, the city administrator may also become active in service clubs, political groups, church groups, or neighborhood clubs. Such activities provide contact with many different kinds of people. Along with a habit of regularly reading pertinent sections of the metropolitan newspaper, membership in these groups can help the administrator develop a feeling for the temper of the adult community towards the school system, its programs, and its problems.

Curriculum. The city administrator is a highly skilled curriculum technician. Whether or not the supervisor is actually involved in the finite work of the curriculum teams, it is the responsibility of this office to secure necessary information and provide the environment for innovative curriculum development. This work includes securing job market analysis data, doing or fostering job-task analysis, keeping up to date on relevant text material availability, securing necessary funding, initiating work with site personnel regarding facilities, providing for staff in-service, and doing the necessary work with central administration offices so as to bring about approvals. The business education supervisor must monitor existing curriculum and see to its revision as needed; and this office is responsible for generating an environment where new curriculum development can take place.

Liaison with state department of education. The city administrator of business education must develop and keep close contact and working relationship with the state bureau of business education. Frequently, city departments need special services that are available from the state—research data, special consulting assistance, program evaluation service, criteria for state funding of special projects, etc. Such liaison is a two-way street, and rightly so. State departments of business education frequently look to city departments, with their special programs, special resources, staffing structures, and so on, as sources of information and help. Specialists in sophisticated curriculum areas are frequently on city business education staffs, and they can be valuable resources to the state office.

State bureaus serve cities through their publications regarding noteworthy business education activities not only within the state but throughout the nation. The state-sponsored leadership meetings and curriculum meetings are important to city departments of business education. A close relationship between city business education departments and state bureaus of business education benefits both organizations. The city administrator plays a key role in establishing and maintaining this important liaison.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

The city administrator is in a unique position in business education. Within the department staff, which will number from a few dozen teachers to several hundred, there will be every kind of business teacher—from the one needing intensive in-service training and guidance to those who are outstanding in their specialty field. The city provides an unexcelled laboratory for testing and observing curriculum projects, new and innovative teaching strategies, evaluation of equipment and instructional materials, and field research of unlimited scope. With this great opportunity for professional activity comes a heavy responsibility —to share information with the profession.

Because there is such a concentration of activity in the city business education department, many agencies seek information. Teacher educators are interested in various trends that are easily observed in the city department. Publishers are anxious to secure information relative to student and program needs. Equipment manufacturers are interested in department successes, failures, and plans as they relate to equipment. Local business offices are vitally interested in the quality of graduated students. Business education departments in suburban communities watch with interest the new probes of their counterparts in the neighboring city. They recognize that the city department's organizational system, special staffing, and unique resources place them in a position to do research and experimental work in the field.

Seldom does a week go by that the city administrator of business education does not get an inquiry from a teacher, a college or university, a state department of education, or a general educator. City departments of business education are frequently interrogated by students working on their thesis or dissertation. In spite of the many complex problems in the city departments of business education, they still represent a concentration of vital, forward-moving activity in the field. As requests for information are received, it is the city administrator who must either answer the request or see to it that answers are provided. This is a professional responsibility.

Professional speaking. Because the city administrator of business education has a good view of available job opportunities, this person can expect to be asked to make presentations at various association meetings and conferences. When the topic is appropriate, these assignments should be accepted. Other business educators are anxious to get information, and the conference speaker generally finds that information is also gained.

Many valuable ideas and suggestions are garnered in the give-and-take question periods following formal presentations. Informal discussions in the coffee shops and convention hall corridors provide excellent opportunities for the city administrator to give and get information on a wide range of professional interests and concerns.

Professional writing. Professional writing, because of its wider coverage, is even more important than professional speaking as a means of sharing ideas. The journals in our field provide a platform from which to project hypotheses, explain concepts, report on innovative practices, explore ideas, and challenge other business educators. In addition to their own professional writing, city administrators should encourage teachers in their departments to write. Those who are operating new and exciting programs and who are enthusiastic, dedicated, and creative in their teaching can make significant professional contributions. Each business education administrator has a responsibility to encourage, develop, and promote new leaders in the field. Encouraging teachers to prepare high-quality professional journal articles is one way to help meet this obligation.

Professional associations. City administrators of business education should be active, participating members of local, state, regional, and national business education and vocational education associations. They should also encourage teachers in their departments to full professional membership in these organizations, and this cannot be done unless the administrator is actively involved. The values of such memberships are obvious.

SUMMARY

If there were no difficult problems to solve in city supervision of business education, there would be no need for city supervisors. There are problems and time-consuming tasks—hundreds of them: staff evaluation, architectural design of new classroom facilities, evaluation and selection of classroom furniture, meetings with community groups, keeping alert to funding sources, attending conferences, reproducing and distributing course outlines, and on and on with an almost endless list. Some of the work is dull and routine. Some is political and hazardous. Much of the work is exciting, stimulating, and rewarding.

Above all the city administrator must have a positive philosophy toward the job. It is not a "thing" job but a "people" job. The measure of success is not in terms of the supervisor's success but of the success of the teachers and students in the department. One would be hard pressed to find a more appropriate description of the ideal administrator than the one presented here. It is one that every business education supervisor should aspire to and describes the type of person with whom any educator would be honored to serve.

> The ideal administrator has developed his own philosophy of administration. He has thought about the purpose of administration, the functions of administration, and principles of good administration deeply, so that his philosophy guides his actions and evaluation of his work as an administrator.
>
> The ideal administrator is more concerned about people than he is about enrollments, facilities, records, and equipment. He is concerned about students and co-workers as fellow human beings—people with aspirations and problems, strengths and weaknesses. He is concerned that students and co-workers develop into the best possible personalities and realize as much as humanly possible the potential for good that lies within each individual. He works to develop people who will have a full and effective life and "enjoy" life in the best meaning of the term. He respects the personalities of all individuals.
>
> The ideal administrator sincerely believes and practices the principle of cooperative participation in the solution of common problems. Policy decisions are made after the viewpoints of all people concerned have been considered and a consensus reached. He is sensitive to the many demands on the time and energy of his co-workers. . . .

The ideal administrator sees himself as a co-worker with other professional workers and not as the boss of a group of subordinates. He is a leader and not a driver. He is a help and not a roadblock in the path of progress. He has ideas and beliefs, but he is willing to accept new ideas and change his beliefs.

The ideal administrator realizes the importance of his administrative work and believes that what he does makes a difference. He believes that because he has acted as he has, more has been learned, stronger teachers have been developed, better decisions have been made, and worthwhile plans have been conceived and completed. . . .

Finally, the ideal administrator, while recognizing the importance of his position and its moral dimensions, sees himself and his position in proper perspective. He is important, but he is not indispensable. He has responsibilities, but he is not overwhelmed by them. He enjoys his work.[1]

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[1] Waterman, Roland C. "A Philosophy of Administration and Supervision." *Administration and Supervision in Business Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Business Education Association, 1965. Chapter 3, pp. 21–22.

CHAPTER 24

Responsibilities of a Business Education Department Head in a Secondary School

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What is a business education department head in the secondary school? This educator has a distinct triad of functional responsibilities that encompass and combine the line roles of administrator-supervisor-teacher. With inherent, respective responsibility to the students and larger community understood, the department head is accountable to the school principal for the performance of all departmental duties. Additionally, as a fellow administrator, the department head also cooperates with the principal, vice-principal, assistant principals, central office administrators, and other department supervisors in coordinating and unifying the program of instruction within the school. Among the specific responsibilities here are short- and long-range planning, special interdepartmental program developments/assignments, and general committee activities.

Within the department the administrative function again encompasses short- and long-range planning, program/course development, changes and additions, and intradepartment committee activities. Here the supervisory and teacher functions are also required.

The department head, by involving the staff fully in department leadership, will help to build essential high morale, pride in professional excellence, and the harmonious team relationship necessary for successful departmental operation and growth. To this end, it is mandatory that the department leader be readily accessible to staff and students—regardless of how this visibility may interfere with the completion of routine work—to act as listener, confidante, clarifier, subject matter and resource consultant, teacher, trainer, human relations expert, and so on.

Equally important, to the degree possible, is the involvement of department staff in the general administrative needs and delegation of duties pertinent to accomplishing these plans. Not only will this involvement and delegation of duties help expediate the department head's contributions to these matters, it will: (a) add to the team relationship of the department; (b) help build overall school pride among the staff; (c) allow a broader range of activity input; and, (d) provide a proper channel for discussing grievances and answering questions regarding school plans and policies.

In summary, many department duties and responsibilities overlap the functions of a line officer and staff member and do not fit neatly into a particular category at all times. Many duties and responsibilities are ongoing, and circumstances within a department or local school will determine what should receive priority at a particular time and to what degree the delegation of general administrative activities among the department staff is feasible.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Classroom role. Several factors can affect the extent to which a secondary school department head functions as a classroom teacher. And while a school district will usually have a definite policy on determining the class load, it could vary from teaching no classes to teaching one, two, or a full program—depending upon the size of the department, the district's financial position, and the desire of the person to be involved in classroom teaching.

Policy aside, however, teaching is one of the prime segments in the functional triad of the leader's organizational position, and as a practical professional matter, it is beneficial to personally keep teacher-ready. Regardless of the degree of active involvement in classroom teaching, the department head should make it a point from year to year to teach a range of courses, including those serving all ability levels of the student population. This procedure will not only provide the department head with a first-hand awareness of all student types and curriculum needs, it will also enhance the practitioner's effectiveness as administrator and supervisor.

From time to time, it may be desirable to give demonstration lessons in some phase of the instructional program as an aid to new teachers or teachers working in a new subject area, or as an introduction to a new teaching method or departmental course. By proper example, the leader can set the pace for the department, instill the desire to improve the instructional quality, and influence overall attitudes and performance.

Supervisory activities. One of the most important department head responsibilities involves classroom visitation, supervision, and evaluation. This responsibility may rest entirely with the leader or be shared with upper-echelon administrators. No matter who is actually involved in this endeavor, for objective success it is vital that the department staff be helped to understand that the purpose of these observations is to improve instruction. To aid in this understanding, time can be devoted in a department meeting(s) to a discussion of expectations and concerns about various areas of competence in skills teaching and basic business instruction. The staff should know what the observer will be looking for and should feel free to invite the observer to classes when something new or unique is being attempted. Any element of mystery should be removed from the procedure so that an atmosphere of cooperation towards the main objective exists.

The observer should arrange for a follow-up conference with the teacher at a mutually convenient time as soon after the observation as possible. During this conference, the observer should again communicate the objective of the observation, point out complimentary things observed, and state any weaknesses noted. The department head should guide the discussion and invite the teacher to also make suggestions regarding improvement. Finally, teacher contract provisions should be followed regarding the frequency of these observations as well as the procedures for making formal reports to the teacher, principal, and central office administration.

Supervision also extends to substitute teachers. Here the department head is responsible for instructing substitutes in their duties, supervising and evaluating their work, and making certain that absentee teachers have left complete classroom instructions to cover their period of absence. Similar supervisory activities may be required if the department is called upon to cooperate with local colleges in providing training experience for student teachers. To aid in the smooth continuance of student instruction during regular teacher absence, it is beneficial to have each staff member develop a substitute folder containing detailed instruction on attendance taking, mark recording, lesson plans, extra assignments and locations, special instructions for machines rooms, and departmental expectations and directions.

ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

Staffing the department. The most important activity in any school is that which transpires in the classroom. Since classroom quality depends on the performance of a good teacher, one of the key responsibilities of a chairperson is the selection of enthusiastic, competent, and innovative teachers.

Recruitment and selection of staff should be a joint effort by department heads, principal, and central office administration. In the well-established school districts, personnel policies will have been developed and a file of qualified candidates from which to choose will be on record. Schools that serve as training/cooperative schools for student teachers may find these candidates an excellent source for staffing. Substitute teachers, whose qualifications and performance are well-known to the department head, are another possible source of good staff.

Other sources for locating qualified personnel are college placement bureaus, teachers' agencies, professional conferences, adult education programs, and recommendations by professional associates. Teacher supply exceeds demand in many disciplines, but there does not seem to be too many business education teachers. However, the search for the right teacher to fill a particular vacancy and to fit in with an existing department and school system should always be a thorough and high-priority effort.

Teacher orientation. With each new addition to the staff, the department head is responsible for orienting the newcomer to the department and to the school. A new business teacher should be provided with curriculum guides or course-of-study outlines and copies of the textbooks and materials used in the classes. The department head should also acquaint the new teacher with the objectives, standards, expectations, and policies of the department.

In a large department, one or more staff members may be assigned as special aides to the new teacher. A number of specific personnel will then be available to the newcomer to answer the many questions that arise once school is under way, no matter how careful or comprehensive an orientation is given.

Assignment of staff. Fitting the right teacher to the right combination of classes is another important responsibility, and the department head should be thoroughly familiar with the provisions of each teacher's contract and work within those guidelines. Teachers should be consulted on their subject preferences, and all assignments should be discussed personally. As much as possible, teacher preferences should be given high consideration, but promote professional growth, the department leader should encourage teachers to accept a varied teaching program and new assignments.

Many business teachers may have a particular area in which they feel strongest in interest and preparation. Having a strong teacher in each subject offered is desirable; it is also desirable that teachers develop flexibility and be able and willing to handle multiple business offerings. Having backup personnel who can replace any subject specialist, when and if the need arises, is also beneficial. To develop this flexibility, and at the same time maintain a contented and highly productive staff, is the department head's duty.

Curriculum development. High on the list of priority for the department head is the development of a comprehensive curriculum whose design meets the specific needs of the students and the community, as well as reflecting the changing needs of the business world. Consequently, the department head must become knowledgeable about the existing program, and after reviewing it, make a determination about the specific needs of the students and community. Any changes, revisions, additions, or deletions should be made with the full cooperation and participation of the staff. It can also be productive to have student participation in curriculum development.

Additions and changes should be carefully worked out and put into proper form (preferably requiring minimal additional funds) before being presented to school administration. It is the department head's responsibility to explain, clarify, promote, and sell the new proposals.

As an aid in developing curriculum, the guidance department may conduct a periodic follow-up of graduates. If not, or in addition to, the business department head should follow up the business graduates to garner helpful feedback. Local job market analyses and employer feedback are further aids in determining needed changes and revisions.

In the final analysis, the business department head is faced with developing and implementing a curriculum that not only adheres to the financial and educational directive parameters but serves the student body in two significant ways: (1) providing a program in which every student, to the extent of his or her capacity, can acquire salable skills (and the proper attitudes) for success in bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, clerical office practice, business English and arithmetic, data processing, distributive occupations, and cooperative work programs; (2) providing the opportunity for students to acquire personal-use competencies in the areas of general business and business practices, recordkeeping, law, consumer education, typewriting and shorthand.

Department promotion. Having developed definite objectives, an excellent curriculum, the assembly of a top-performing staff, and the creation of a positive image within the department, there remains a vital function—that of selling the business program within the local school and to the community. First, it is essential that the business education staff be familiar with all department offerings, prerequisites, general requirements, and objectives of each course or program. The staff will frequently be asked questions by students, parents, and community contacts and are often involved in informal guidance activities. Thus, the department head must arrange for thorough communication and two-way information flow within the department.

Committee work, preparation of course outlines, and encouraging teachers to visit colleagues' classrooms will help. Another solid, learn-about-the-department experience is to schedule regular departmental meeting time for teachers to give a capsule course in their specialty field, preferably with the rest of the staff having hands-on experience in such areas as data processing, business machines, machine shorthand, typewriting, and shorthand laboratory facilities. In much the same way that a teacher would inform parents in a conference-night activity of the objectives, content, and expected outcomes of their students' courses, such information sharing can be productive for staff, especially in a department with multiple-course offerings.

INTERDISCIPLINARY ACTIVITIES

Working with guidance staff. Guidance counselors are directly related to the business department and its program. It is the responsibility of the business department head to assume the initiative in informing counselors of the objectives of the department and to provide a full, detailed explanation of all courses. Counseling staff should also be invited to attend certain departmental meetings to become familiar with the business program and gain full answers to their questions. It is particularly important to get feedback and to solicit suggestions from counselors for determining curriculum improvement.

The business department leader should also help counselors keep up to date with current literature regarding business opportunities and requirements. When the guidance staff performs group guidance functions on the secondary school or feeder-school levels, the business department must make sure they are well represented.

A positive, friendly, and cooperative relationship must be established with the counseling staff. This will help assure that all students in the school are encouraged to profit from the varied business education offerings, either with a vocational career goal as their objective or with a personal use and skill attainment objective.

Making administration aware of business education. An on-going function of a business leader is to keep administrators informed of department happenings. This can be done through monthly reports, special reports of professional conferences attended by business education personnel, or accounts of handling school problems that may be useful to other departments. A comprehensive annual report should be made to the principal that reviews positive and productive department activities and outcomes, but avoids complaints and negative comments. Administrators should also be invited to attend department meetings and functions and to accompany the leader or staff to professional meetings when the event would have special interest to them.

Establishing good rapport with fellow workers. Active involvement by the business department in the total school program should be a concern of the chairperson. Suggestions for implementing this type of total school involvement include:

1. Encouraging business department personnel to become active in schoolwide activities
2. Assuming sponsorship of the school store, certain class activities, and school clubs
3. Active participation and leadership on schoolwide committees
4. Providing an organized duplicating/typing service to serve the clerical needs of all teachers
5. Active support of all school functions
6. Assigning student secretarial help to school offices
7. Inviting teachers and school secretarial staff to learn or brush up on typing and other business skills by auditing classes in the subjects of interest to them
8. Writing up department meetings and duplicating and circulating those reports to other department heads
9. Sharing equipment and know-how, when possible or needed.

Promoting student awareness of business education. Promotion of department curriculum and activities among the student body is a continuing concern. Promotion must be an on-going activity, with concentrated effort at strategic times.

The business head should utilize some, or all, of the following ideas (and more) to keep business education well-publicized and make it an attractive prospect to the student body:

1. Maintain a really good instructional program to insure favorable word-of-mouth advertising.
2. Develop a film slide presentation of the department activities and offerings; keep this updated so that it includes students currently involved in business classes, field trips, club activities, and cooperative work programs. Showing these slides in assemblies or as career presentations to smaller groups can net positive results in business student recruitment.
3. Initiate an active Future Business Leaders of America chapter and publicize its activities.
4. Place articles in the school newspaper about business education opportunities and activities in the school.
5. Recognize student achievement via a well-organized and publicized award program
6. Utilize bulletin boards and showcases to advertise business education.

Community contact. The department head has a real opportunity and responsibility in establishing good community contacts and making the instructional program and activities known to parents and the business community. Contacting parents when there is something commendable to report carries far greater public relations value than only contacting them when there is a problem.

Formation of an advisory board made up of local businessmen, professional accountants, secretaries, court reporters, realtors, and others provides an excellent two-way communication channel to the business community and helps to develop a list of community contacts who can make career presentations in the classroom. This is a positive use of community resources and adds a "real-world" dimension to the instruction. Similarly, it would be very much in order for the department head to volunteer as a speaker before community groups and to use the slide presentation of department offerings, equipment, and activities on these occasions.

In connection with special events (such as school conference nights), parents and alumni might be invited for refreshments, to take a tour of the department facilities, and to view the slide presentation followed by an open or personal question-and-answer discussion.

MORE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Planning department meetings people want to attend. The lure of refreshments does a great deal to set the tone for a productive staff meeting. Starting a meeting this way also provides the opportunity for department members to socialize the develop a spirit of togetherness.

Planning productive department meetings is a key aspect of the leader's duties. A successful meeting will follow an agenda—one that is publicized in advance if possible. Guidance counselors and administrators should be invited when the meeting would be of particular interest to them.

Sometimes a shared meeting with other departments can be profitable. These meetings might focus around department projects, involve participation of department personnel, utilize resource consultants, or concentrate on solving department and school problems.

Routine business matters are better handled by bulletin or other written communications. Department meetings that are successful are those that contribute to solving teacher problems, result in a meaningful exchange of ideas, or result in learning from stimulating speakers.

Encouraging professional growth of the staff. By example, the department head sets the pace for professional participation and growth. Active participation in local, regional, state, and national business education associations is essential, and the staff should also be encouraged to become involved in these organizations. The department leader should help make it possible for staff to attend meetings and conventions of professional associations.

A library of professional literature should be accessible to the department. Availability of even a small library will help keep staff apprised of current research. There could also be need for the department head to arrange in-service training for the staff. Additionally, the staff should be encouraged to pursue university study for advanced degrees and the improvement of personal competencies. Similarly, the department head may arrange for staff members to audit a course within the department. Focus would be on the professional growth of the teacher and the training of teacher back-up in a particular subject area.

Nuts and bolts administrative duties. The secondary school business department chairperson has a number of routine responsibilities inherent in the position. These are the day-to-day or periodic duties essential to the smooth functioning of the department. Some of these "nitty-gritty" responsibilities are:

1. Requisitioning books, supplies, equipment, and repairs
2. Distributing books, supplies, and equipment to staff
3. Instructing and supervising teachers concerning the collection of fees and fines
4. Providing an accounting of school property at the end of the year or as needed
5. Promoting the use of the library and audiovisual aids by all department personnel
6. Arranging for the sponsorship of activities and special projects for which the department is logically responsible

7. Evaluating textbooks and materials for adoption
8. Holding conferences with students, parents, and teachers
9. Holding conferences with publishing, machine, and audiovisual representatives
10. Devising security precautions for equipment and supplies
11. Preparing budget estimates for the department
12. Initiating and/or cooperating in the application for federal and state-funded projects
13. Articulating work with business departments of other schools
14. Carrying out directives of the school administrators.

The bottom line. No matter what the job description says or how diverse, complex, or demanding the duties and personal interactions (on all levels—internally and externally), a business department head in a secondary school is an educator . . . an educator who continually performs as the three-in-one person whose functional output includes administration, supervision, and teaching.

CHAPTER 25

The Business Education Supervisor/ Administrator in a Two-Year College

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The comprehensive community college or junior college is dedicated to the varied educational needs of youth and adults beyond high school age, both terminal and transfer. The community college is offering education to a broader segment of the population each year. No longer is the concept of the junior college limited to that of offering a lower-division program parallel to the four-year college or university. The community college meets the needs of the community wherever that need appears.

The main purposes of the community college are to provide:

1. Two years of college which parallel the lower-division requirements of the state universities, state colleges, and private colleges and universities
2. Business, technical, and professional assistant courses and curriculums requiring levels of maturity and ability between those demanded in trade training and those demanded in four-year programs for those students who intend to enter gainful occupations at the end of two years of college or less
3. General courses, community services, and programs for those who desire to broaden their educational and cultural experiences, study the arts, or wish to continue lifelong learning
4. Renewed opportunity for entering or continuing in higher education for those who latently show promise of success
5. Counseling services to assist students in self-evaluation and attainment of their maximum potential.

The most unique contribution to postsecondary education, however, rests in vocational-technical education. In these fields, classes vary in type, scope, and length according to specific needs of business and industry. Courses in merchandising, transportation, purchasing, word processing, secretarial, data processing, or insurance may all be found in the two-year college. Skilled artisans are employed as instructors, and the best equipment is made available. Costs to the students are minimal. Above all, these vocational opportunities are within easy reach of ambitious citizens.

PRIMARY RESPONSIBILITIES

The primary responsibility of the business education supervisor/administrator in a two-year college is that of carrying out the purpose of the college. Today, business educators in community-junior colleges must not be concerned about *which* of the functions their departments will perform, but how they will perform *all* of the instructional functions.

Each curriculum is established with the aim of training only for those occupations that, according to research, tend to meet most of the important requisites for job satisfaction: (1) opportunity for advancement, (2) opportunity for individual effort, (3) opportunity to assume responsibility, (4) opportunity for creativity and the use of initiative, and (5) good pay.

By adhering to the role outlined above, the community college can offer college courses for college credit, combine these courses to form outstanding occupational programs for high school graduates and other qualified students, assure its graduates of ready employment opportunities, retrain personnel where occupational needs have shifted, help meet major manpower needs in our high caliber business and industrial community and, as a by-product, serve as models for meeting the challenge of an exploding technology through advanced kinds of occupational education endeavors throughout the nation.

The administrator of the business education program is like business and industrial managers who are responsible for divisions or departments of their organizations. They may coordinate the instructional program, supervise the instructional staff, execute administrative policies of the college, manage a division budget, select equipment, plan schedules, and make room assignments.

The administrator as a mid-management person is usually responsible to a dean of instruction or a director of occupational education and, in cooperation with such administrative personnel, carries out the following administrative functions:

Administrative:

1. Provides leadership in the formulation, development, and revision of curriculums and course outlines; presents division proposals to the curriculum committee
2. Assumes a major role regarding faculty appointments, teaching loads and assignments, classroom visitations, evaluation of instruction, tenure, promotions, and dismissals, in close cooperation with the dean of instruction and, where appropriate, the dean of the evening college
3. Coordinates the recommendations of appropriate texts and other teaching materials
4. Certifies to the dean of instruction, for payroll purposes, attendance of all personnel in the division, approving faculty requests to be absent from assigned classes and arranging for substitutes in case of a faculty absence
5. Represents the members of the division in an administrative capacity

6. Edits and justifies budget requests of individual faculty members; formulates annual division budget requests for teaching services, instructional supplies, clerical assistance, operation and maintenance, equipment, library resources, audiovisual aids, and travel
7. Regulates expenditures within approved division budgets by preparation of purchase requisitions and adjustment of funds within the division
8. Assumes responsibility for providing within the division an esprit de corps among the students through such means as meeting with majors, students' activities related to the major, interest in individual student's aspirations and goals, awards for outstanding majors, etc.

Coordinating:

1. Keeps the staff of the division advised on college and divisional procedures and regulations
2. Coordinates the day and evening educational programs offered by the division, including the service and general education courses for students whose major lies in another division
3. Coordinates activities within the division in regard to exhibits, bulletins, instructional facilities including special laboratories, relation to other divisions, and public and community relations
4. Works with the counseling and guidance staff
5. Works with student placement and work experience staff
6. Serves as a member of the curriculum committee, the division council, and other campus committees as appropriate
7. Works with community advisory committees
8. Coordinates the articulation activities of the division with secondary schools, private schools, and four-year colleges and universities.

In the world of today's administrator of business education in a two-year college, nothing stands still. An administrator is constantly on the move from one problem to another, from one situation to another, from one decision to another. The practice of management is a daily encounter with many challenges.

PROGRAM PLANNING

Business education programs should be planned on the basis of demonstrated need. Public support for a new and growing program depends upon the ability of the business education administrator to identify and describe needed areas of service and produce evidence to substantiate them. The public is often less able to recognize need for change in an established program, however, and will sometimes continue to support an ongoing program on the strength of its earlier successes, even after it has lost some of its effectiveness and relevance. Business educators have a professional obligation to inform the public through proper administrative channels when aspects of the program show diminishing need or effectiveness and to make recommendations for change and modernization.

The division administrator must be able to project plans of two types—short term and long range. The administrator must propose programs, policies, and procedures to meet current needs of people for occupational education. At the same time the administrator is required to assess economic, social, and educational trends with sufficient clarity to anticipate and meet long-range goals and needs.

If others are expected to play a positive role in carrying out programs that have been planned, they must be involved in all stages of the planning. All groups and all levels of the professional staff of the college system need to be involved. So also must the community be involved as a whole and as represented by its special interest groups. This means particularly the community advisory committee, the spokesmen for business, industry, and labor, as well as others who have a relationship to employment. The best interest of the student must be foremost in the program plan.

The final stage in planning consists of preparing a working proposal and taking the proposal to the teaching staff, the college curriculum committee, the community advisory committee, and appropriate authorities. The plan should be well supported with facts and documentation. Such a plan must show the underlying rationale, the details of program structure, the staffing requirements, special facilities and equipment costs, anticipated benefit to students, and a plan for periodic evaluation and adjustment.

Advisory committees. When advisory committees are used in program development it is best that each committee be formally appointed by the official body responsible for the program. A committee of from five to seven members representing employers and labor can provide input with respect to job market opportunities and can review the course of study to determine the practical nature of the intended program.

It is the responsibility of the business education administrator to keep all advisory committees active, responsive, and contributing. It is not unusual to find that committees, once formed, become less and less active, more and more perfunctory in their activities, and end up as paper committees having only a nominal relationship to the business education program. When this happens it is usually because the administrator has failed to devote the required time and attention to the advisory committees. Keeping the committees functional requires a substantial amount of staff time, but the benefits are commensurate with the time invested.

State education agency. The branch of the state education agency that has responsibility for approving the disbursal of state and federal funds to the community or junior college renders a variety of administrative and advisory services which can guide and assist the administrator in the program planning process. The local administrator will need to work closely with this agency in maintaining a quality program in his community.

Articulation. Articulation is the process of interrelating curriculum and related services into a systematic, sequential, and comprehensive total program offering. Articulation should occur between institutions offering secondary and postsecondary programs as well as permit transfer to four-year colleges and universities. Articulation should also occur between similar and related programs, courses, and/or units of instruction within both the transfer and vocational business courses and programs.

The supervisor should involve all persons concerned. The business department or division chairperson has the responsibility and should be given the authority to initiate, implement, and coordinate articulation. He/she should seek the advice and counsel of respective program advisory committees in order to assure continuity of program content at all levels. Articulation cannot be achieved overnight; it is a slow process and the transitional steps required for its full implementation will require the total cooperation of all involved.

Articulation insures that students receive credit for previously acquired skills and knowledges. Students should not have to repeat particular segments of a program just because they were taken at a different institution or at a different level.

Evaluation. Program evaluation is a process of measuring the effectiveness of the business education program in meeting its stated goals and objectives. The purpose of evaluation is to provide data for decision making. The supervisor of the business education program has a direct responsibility for this activity. Evaluation is not a single activity isolated from the rest of the educational system. Neither does one "stop everything" for an evaluation. Instead, evaluation is carried out continuously with specific times designated for special evaluation activities. Evaluation should be carried out as follows:

1. Continually, as preestablished objectives are utilized and recast in the daily management of the business education program
2. Periodically, as the staff in the local educational agency examines in depth selected aspects of its business education program, such as those functions pertaining to student services
3. Annually, as the local administration and staff revise the college vocational education plan
4. Every three to five years, for an in-depth review of the total business education program in the college.

Ideally, every member of the local staff has clearly defined roles and tasks in the evaluation process. This is logical since evaluation is essentially a self-monitoring of the ongoing operation for the purpose of program improvement.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

A good business education facility needs to be designed and built to accommodate the program or programs that will be conducted in it. It will necessarily have features that are different from those found in buildings offering lecture programs only. These differences in planning and design are important whether the business program is serving the *comprehensive* needs of its students or only the occupational preparation needs of students. The administrator of the business education program must also keep in mind that the programs will surely change over the years and considerable flexibility must be maintained in facility design and construction.

It has long been a basic principle of good business education planning that the conditions, surroundings, and equipment of the college resemble as closely as possible those that the student will encounter on the job. It is also important that any facilities created support the long-range local plan for the development of a sound program of occupational training and not be merely a place in which to offer formal occupational courses.

Most business education classrooms will need special mechanical and electrical services not found in the usual teaching facility. Counter space, electrical outlets, storage cabinets, and sinks are typical of the considerations that the supervisor must keep in mind.

The following checklist will assist the supervisor in evaluating the business program facilities and equipment:[1]

1. The size and location of rooms or areas assigned to the department permit suitable layouts for the program and are adaptable to change as program modification occurs.
2. The office practice and typewriting rooms are acoustically treated to reduce excessive noise and to prevent interference with instruction in other classes.
3. Adequate storage facilities are provided within the area of the department.
4. Each room has at least one 4-drawer filing cabinet.
5. Classrooms where accounting, business mathematics, retailing, and shorthand are taught have a minimum of 25 running feet of chalkboard.
6. Office practice and typewriting classrooms have a minimum of 15 running feet of chalkboard.
7. All rooms have adequate bulletin board space.
8. The number of electrical outlets is sufficient for office equipment in use and the placement of outlets permits flexible room arrangements.
9. A master switch is provided for rooms with a series of electrical outlets.
10. Equipment readily available for all business teachers are copying and duplication machines, opaque projector, overhead projector, filmstrip

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[1] Selden, William, and DiIorio, James A. *Criteria for Evaluating a Business Education Program.* Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1976. pp 6–7.

and slide projectors, motion picture projector, record player, and tape or cassette recorder.

11. Equipment is representative of that being used in local offices, as evidenced in an employment area survey.
12. Electric typewriters are replaced on a systematic basis every four to six years.
13. Machines other than typewriters are replaced on a systematic basis every 8 to 10 years.
14. All machines including typewriters are cleaned, oiled, and adjusted at least once every school year.
15. A comprehensive record is kept of all machines and includes: description of the item, date of purchase, cost, from whom purchased, serial number, repair service, disposition date, and trade-in credit.
16. A lavatory is in each office practice and typewriting room.
17. A telephone is available for service calls, the operation of a cooperative business education program, and student placement.

BUDGETING

Clearly the need for an adequate budget both for maintenance and replacement is a consideration that the business supervisor must cope with. Nothing detracts more from the quality of a business department program than inadequate funds.

The budget is the financial plan of operation for the educational program of the college. It expresses the hopes and aspirations of everyone involved—the department supervisor, teachers, administrators, school board members, the advisory committees, and the public. The end result is improved instruction for students.

In planning the budget for the coming year, the supervisor should consider past accomplishments, present needs, and plans for the immediate future as well as some long-range considerations. In this respect, the answers to the following questions may be important—first, as they apply to the past:[2]

1. What has been the college growth in the past several years? How has this growth taken place in the business education department?
2. What changes have been made in the curriculum in the past?
3. How have the needs for equipment and other materials been handled in the past?
4. Have the needs of the student and community been met?
5. Do surveys or other studies reveal the effectiveness of the curriculum?

The past will be helpful in meeting current needs. In this respect, answers to the following questions will be valuable:

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[2] Woolschlager, Ruth B. *Responsibilities of the Business Education Department Chairman.* Monograph 120. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1969. pp 46–47.

1. What is the projected enrollment for the college, as well as the business education department, for the coming year?
2. What additional equipment, supplies, and materials will be needed if an enrollment increase takes place?
3. What immediate changes in the curriculum are being planned?
4. If these curriculum changes have been approved, what budgetary requests must be made to meet these needs?
5. Are replacements of equipment due to be made? Have recent developments outmoded equipment currently in use?
6. What new instructional media is essential in carrying out a sound program of business education?
7. If funds are limited, must a priority listing be made?
8. How does the current program fit into the future plans? Does this planning reflect the objectives of the business department as well as the philosophy of the college?

In meeting current needs, consideration must be given to future plans. Long-range plans, of course, must be flexible and subject to adjustment annually. Therefore, these questions may have application:

1. What trends are developing to affect the future curriculum?
2. What is happening in the business world that will soon have implications for the curriculum?
3. How does the businessman and industrial leader think these new developments will meet the needs of tomorrow?
4. Is there a need for planning equipment purchases and/or supplies over a short-term or long-term basis?
5. Is the rental or leasing of expensive equipment being considered?
6. Will the ability of the community to finance education change?
7. What is the trend for financing education?

These are typical questions that need to be answered in analyzing the various factors that influence good budget procedures. Through careful planning, a budget will have much to do with improving the quality of instruction.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the two-year or community college is to serve the total community by offering educational experiences which will aid individuals in the realization of their personal goals. The role of business education in the community college is to provide individuals with a comprehensive program which includes general education and career education objectives. General education values are inherent in all community college business courses, provide an insight into the operation of the free enterprise system, and equip students to function satisfactorily as human beings within the system. The continuing process of career education provides the knowledge and training necessary for initial employment, transfer to other educational institutions, career advancement, and professional growth.

The role of the business education supervisor/administrator is that of meeting the objectives of the business education program in the community college. This is accomplished by bringing together the following essential elements:

Faculty

A faculty composed of professional business teachers who:

1. Maintain a mastery of subject matter
2. Are flexible and innovative and demonstrate an understanding of teaching methodologies
3. Apply accepted principles of learning theories and skill development
4. Counsel, encourage, and motivate students
5. Participate in professional activities
6. Demonstrate a cooperative attitude in curriculum planning and development
7. Disseminate information through professional publications
8. Are supportive of professional associations
9. Participate in educational research, including job analyses and community surveys
10. Cooperate with administrators, counselors, and supportive staff of the college community

Curriculum

A curriculum that:

1. Provides education for career clusters as well as for specific jobs
2. Reflects changing community needs and interests
3. Includes a diversity of courses for students at different levels of readiness
4. Culminates in the awarding of certificates of achievement and associate degrees
5. Provides for the use of interdisciplinary approaches

Facilities and equipment

Facilities and equipment which:

1. Are cooperatively planned by teachers and other knowledgeable resource persons
2. Provide a supportive environment conducive to maximum learning
3. Reflect current trends in the employment community

Communication and articulation

Communication and articulation with:

1. High schools, colleges, and universities

2. The business community through the establishment and effective use of advisory committees
3. Other educational and social agencies

Guidance, placement, and follow-up

Guidance, placement, and follow-up of students by:

1. Assisting them in setting realistic goals
2. Proposing planned sequences of courses
3. Providing occupational information for those exploring various fields
4. Cooperating with placement offices in finding part-time and full-time positions
5. Conducting follow-up studies of former students to determine the effectiveness of their program of study.

This summary represents some of the kinds of responsibilities the business education supervisor/administrator must accept. Although earlier training and experience may have been as a specialist in one of the business subjects, the supervisor/administrator must deal with all of the specialties. In addition, his or her role as an education leader makes demands of other kinds apart from any particular competence in educating for business life.

CHAPTER 26

The Business Education Administrator/ Supervisor in a Four-Year College or University

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It must be made clear at the beginning of this chapter that we are talking about a department of business teacher education within a university setting. The notion of leadership in a university setting needs critical examination and analysis. One would expect that a leader would be able to influence decisions affecting one's area and department. Unfortunately, in recent years this has not been the case. Many departmental administrators receive decisions from university administrators and must simply transmit these decisions to other members of the department.

To paraphrase a statement from a recent issue of the *American Behavioral Scientist* in discussing the military, one could say: "The 'university' ethic is fundamentally 'anti-individualistic'; in this realm we find the strongest difference between the 'university' value system and that of a liberal civilian society which stresses the importance of the individual."[1] With this statement as a background, then the basic philosophy of a business teacher education administrator/supervisor is that the person is more a coordinator than a supervisor—a co-worker with professional colleagues rather than an administrator/supervisor—providing cooperative participation in the solution of common problems.

There should be a clearly defined philosophy of business teacher education which describes the objectives of the program. As an administrator, the business teacher educator represents this program and the department to the world outside the university, serves as a spokesperson within the university, and represents the department in meetings with other program administrators in the university.

The administrator should be an expert in the art of making it possible for all members to work freely and effectively to provide the best education program for students enrolled in the teacher education program. Therefore, one of the major responsibilities of the business education administrator is to try to provide the resources, time, consultation, and cooperative leadership that will be instrumental in improving instruction in all phases of the business education program. An additional responsibility of a business education administrator is to be a communication link for the faculty both to and from other university administrators.

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[1] Wakin, Malham M. "The Ethics of Leadership." *American Behavioral Scientist*, Vol. 19, No. 5; May/June 1976.

RELATIONSHIP WITH TWO-YEAR COLLEGE PERSONNEL AND PROGRAMS

The relationship with programs at less than a four-year program should be one of cooperation and communication. It has been referred to as articulation. The faculty and students at two-year schools should have open access to information about programs—requirements, transfer policies, and standards—at both university and departmental levels.

Where possible, transfer programs should be designed to ease the transition for the students from a two-year to a four-year program. A student who has declared business teacher education as a goal while at a two-year college should have some type of commitment that would allow that student to transfer directly to a four-year program. There should be frequent consultation and discussions of common problems. All concerned parties should have an opportunity to discuss recommended changes.

The business teacher education department at a university should also consider as one of its responsibilities the provision for education of teachers for the two-year colleges. University business education departments should provide suitable and appropriate curriculum and degree programs for community college teachers and other postsecondary school teachers as well as for secondary school teachers and department heads. In recent years the two-year college movement has led to a need for education programs geared especially for teachers at these schools. This could take the form of a special master's degree or a university certificate or a doctorate with two-year college teaching as the objective of students in the programs.

RELATIONSHIP WITH STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

The relationship with state departments of education is one of cooperation and a willingness to provide input for programs. Business teacher educators should work closely with state departments to provide in-service workshops and continuing education programs for teachers. There should be close working relationships between members of state departments of education and business education departments to insure that teachers have the necessary programs to qualify for teaching within the state. There is and should continue to be cooperation in the development of curriculum materials and syllabuses.

The business education administrator is also responsible for initiating contacts with the business community. It is important to have active and ongoing successful public relations with the community at large. This is imperative for state supported universities, particularly in an age of vocal taxpayers. It is important for both the university faculty and the administrator to be visible in the community. This will help program graduates find acceptance in the job market and insure that program content is relatively current.

It often seems to take a long time to make changes at the university level. This is not necessarily a shortcoming; however, it is important for the departmental administrator and members of the department to work with the business community and to involve community leaders in some capacity with the department. It is desirable where feasible to organize an advisory council for the department with representatives from the business community. This council can be a source of advice for curriculum modification and updating of content.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

For most departmental faculty, the problem is not whether to be involved with professional groups but to decide which professional groups. There are local, state, regional, national, and international groups that provide opportunities for professional growth, leadership, and participation. It is essential for business educators to participate in business education professional associations such as the state business education associations, the National Business Education Association, and the appropriate regional group. It is just as important for business educators to be involved in professional associations of other and diverse groups. This is one way to promote business education among others. If business educators are convinced of the worth of their programs, they should be telling their story to such groups as the Chamber of Commerce, the Administrative Management Society, Rotary, Kiwanis, Altrusa, Zonta, Lions, the Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc., and the like.

One way in which the departmental administrator can encourage faculty to participate in outside organizations is to make provision in the budget for the payment of membership fees for various faculty members.

LOCATION WITHIN THE UNIVERSITY

The business education program in American universities is usually located in either the school of education or the school of business. More recently, some business education programs have been located as subprograms under the umbrella of vocational and occupational education. In certain instances, departments of business teacher education exist by sufferance in schools of business.

In schools of education, there is usually a good working relationship between departments because there is the common goal of educating teachers. A favorable working climate exists between administrators and faculty. There is also likely to be reasonable receptivity to the job that departments of business education are trying to accomplish. It is possible within most schools of education to develop new ideas and courses with less resistance than from other schools within the university.

The faculty in a school of education represent more definitively to students the concept of educators working in an educational atmosphere. This results in programs with more input from the professional viewpoint than from the content areas. Departments of business education tend to face bias from other units working within the university.

In many cases, departments of business education have strong rapport with schools of business, and some schools of business are receptive to the unusual needs of business teachers. However, one must recognize that in some schools of business there is a long-term antieducation bias which is difficult to pinpoint; it was in existence long before the Gordon-Howell report.

Where *should* the program of business teacher education be—in the school of business or in a special vocational education department? What preparation can the university provide for the high school business teacher and for the business department administrator in other schools?

The business teacher administrator must look to the future and help in deciding where the needs of the students in the program can best be served. A serious question which must also be faced is: Where is business education going to be in the next five years? There will still be many of the same problems to consider in the next decade as there were in the past decade.

One trend in recent years has been the elimination or reduction of the skills courses and undergraduate work in education. How can teachers be prepared to teach these particular subjects if courses in these subjects are not available to them?

WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT

There must be excellent rapport within the department so the assignment of classes, budget allocations for supplies and travel, curriculum development assignments, and advisement responsibilities are distributed fairly and cooperatively. Sponsorship of professional business and honorary societies for students should also be a part of faculty assignments. If there is not a chapter of Pi Omega Pi, Delta Pi Epsilon, Phi Beta Lambda, or other organizations for business students, the departmental administrator should make it a responsibility to help get them organized.

The present climate in four-year colleges and universities mandates that faculty write and be involved in research. The problems of promotion and tenure are not unique to the university; however, the criteria for such promotion and tenure differ greatly from those at other educational levels. It is in the interest of the departmental faculty that the administrator/supervisor encourage the faculty to participate in professional meetings, deliver professional papers, conduct research in business education, and write for professional journals about those topics in which they have knowledge and experience.

The business education administrator has some unique responsibilities at the college and university level. Requests are often received to recommend members of the department for committee assignments within the school and university. The departmental administrator must know the faculty so that appropriate recommendations and nominations can be made. The administrator must know the individual staff members well enough to provide them with the opportunity to make the best use of their special talents and expertise.

It is the responsibility of the administrator to provide the documentation to support recommendations for promotion and tenure. In many cases this means obtaining references from sources outside the university, assessment of teaching effectiveness, and scholarly achievements. The business education administrator must encourage faculty to continue on for advanced degrees if they wish to remain in tertiary education. In recent years, student evaluation of teaching has been used as another indicator of teaching effectiveness. This has its shortcomings if not administered properly.

RECENT ISSUES

The issue of representation and negotiation for salaries and working conditions has been gaining momentum at the colleges and universities. It is essential for business education administrators to be conversant with the terms of such contracts as are negotiated and current. In many universities those administrators who are teaching are eligible for membership in such organizations as the bargaining units. Whether or not the administrator is a member of the bargaining unit, it is still necessary to abide by the terms of the contracts.

In the 1970's the issue of affirmative action became prominent. It is necessary to consider all applicants for openings at colleges and universities in conformance with the legislation. Title VI and VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Executive Order 11246, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and the Revised Order No. 14 of the U.S. Department of Labor state in one form or another the necessity of making known the openings and the consideration of all qualified applicants for such openings.

As a result of such legislation, opportunities for women and other minorities have been provided that would not otherwise have been open to them. In an attempt to achieve balance in departments, some recruiting information states that preference will be given to women and minorities. This, of course, is not legal. Administrators should be aware that the intent of the regulations is to provide equal opportunity, not a system of quotas.

CHAPTER 27

Administration and Supervision of Business Education in the Independent Business Schools

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The independent business school, as a respected segment of postsecondary educational institutions, has gained its present professional stature through the dedicated efforts of its leaders to meet the requirements of the employing public it serves. While the bulk of the independent business schools are proprietary in their form of governance, about 15 percent of them are tax-exempt or "nonprofit," and some are church-related institutions. More than 25 percent are authorized by state law to grant the associate or bachelor's degree. The fact that the institution is proprietary has nothing whatever to do with the educational program it offers.

The independent business school must finance its operation without gift, tax advantage, or subsidy and must, therefore, be alert to the changing needs of society and business. The fact that independent business schools across the nation have been increasing in number and quality serves as ample evidence of their effectiveness.

Among other things, this chapter deals with the relationships of independent business schools with state education departments, with certification and educational standards, and with the responsibilities of the supervisor/administrator.

STATE SUPERVISION OF INDEPENDENT BUSINESS SCHOOLS

In the United States no federal ministry of education or other centralized authority exists which exercises single national control over educational institutions. The states assume varying degrees of control over education, both public and private. In general, institutions of higher education are permitted to operate with considerable independence and autonomy. Consequently, American postsecondary educational institutions vary widely in the character and quality of their programs.

Since the states assume control over education, they have the accompanying responsibility to publicly certify that independent business schools operating within their borders are acceptable and have met established requirements. Where supervision of independent business schools has been established by state law, the responsibility for such supervision is usually fixed, by statute, in the state board of education or is delegated to the state superintendent or other executive officer. In actual practice, the administration of laws regulating the independent business schools are usually assigned to a special bureau or department which is under the control of the state board of education.

In most states, independent business schools are annually required to obtain a certificate of approval or license renewal which indicates that they have complied with the requirements of the law. The agency administering the state law regulating independent business schools often publishes a directory containing the names of approved schools.

The primary responsibility of the state is consumer protection. This is true since the state is in a position, through the force of law, to police, monitor, and enforce the activities of any educational institution and all of its agents. So-called "voluntary" private associations are not equipped to deal with the matter of consumer protection.

The Accrediting Commission of the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools, which will be discussed subsequently, has added much to the stature of independent business schools. The view of the Accrediting Commission is that the responsibilities of the state are separate, parallel, and compatible with accreditation, but that neither is preemptive of the other.

It is true that some people view state regulation as providing a minimum set of standards, while they view accreditation as providing a higher set of standards. This is not a view which is shared by the Accrediting Commission of the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools. That Commission feels that the states should identify and exercise certain responsibilities in the area of legal authority, degree-granting authority, public welfare, and consumer protection. On the other hand, the accrediting agencies should more properly deal with areas of institutional integrity and the quality of education offered.

If standards of institutional integrity and quality of education are established by an agency outside the state, there is no question that schools meeting these standards are able to compete on a much higher level. Conversely, regulations relating to consumer protection imposed by the states have protected students from possible exploitation by schools which are not reputable. And such consumer protection laws have also protected reputable schools from the school owner who is dishonest.

In August 1976, Richard Millard, director of the Postsecondary Education Department of the Education Commission of the States, addressed a meeting of secretaries of the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation. He concluded that the probability of uniformity in approach among all 50 states with regard to evaluation and regulation of educational institutions is practically zero.

There is no question that a need exists for more dialogue to be developed between national and regional accrediting agencies and the state regulatory agencies. Moreover, if the accrediting agencies are not interested in becoming enforcement agencies, then the state agencies must assume this function in relation to substandard and fraudulent institutions, both public and independent. Since everyone is concerned with serving the best educational interests of the people in all states and in the nation as a whole, the state regulatory agencies and the accrediting agencies each serve critical functions.

Presently, there are only a few of the states that do not have regulatory agencies, and it is imperative that they be developed. Where such agencies are weak, they must be strengthened. State agencies and accrediting agencies not only should understand each other's function but should work together cooperatively to achieve a common goal.

STAFF CERTIFICATION AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

Using educational background and related employment experience as criteria, a recent Stanford Research Institute study found the quality of faculty in the independent business schools to be high. The study found that most instructors had college degrees at several levels, many had state teacher certification, and many had prior experience in teaching or experience in the business world.

The results of the Stanford study are not surprising since the Accrediting Commission of the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools requires that the preparation of faculty members be adequate and appropriate to the subject matter taught; that teachers should have an educational background at least equivalent to that represented by a standard baccalaureate degree; and that teachers of vocational subjects should have specific and successful occupational experience in the fields taught. The Accrediting Commission also requires that faculties in the independent business schools show evidence of professional alertness by membership and participation in educational organizations, by reading professional publications, and by the continuance of their education.

More and more independent business schools are encouraging faculty members to attend and participate in workshops and conventions for business educators. In recent years state and regional associations of business schools have sponsored an increasing number of workshops for teachers. This trend certainly will continue and further enhance the educational standards in the independent business schools.

PRIMARY RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SUPERVISOR/ADMINISTRATOR

In the independent business school, the supervisor/administrator has the responsibility to create an organization that successfully functions in both the educational and business activities of the institution.

In the larger schools, where there is a corporate form of organization, the policymaking function usually rests in a board of directors, with the school president acting as the chief executive officer.

In some multicampus institutions, which are under common ownership, overall responsibility for supervision and administration rests with the chairman of the board and/or the president. In this case, each campus is under the supervision of a director who has responsibility for sound financial management, strong educational administration, and effective business organization. Since no one person has all these talents, the supervisor/administrator will endeavor to select persons with talents to fit the duties to be performed and give them the authority and responsibility to perform the functions assigned.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH NATIONAL ACCREDITING AGENCIES

Accreditation, while it means different things to different people, may be defined simplistically as peer participation in a judgment measuring the quality of education by pre-established criteria. Accreditation must not be confused with the distinct responsibility of state licensure and regulation or warranteeing the accountability expectations of program administrators disbursing federal or state funds. The major goal of accreditation, of course, is the improvement of education in the program or programs being evaluated, a view shared by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, a national nongovernmental recognizing organization, and by the United States Office of Education, which recognizes accrediting agencies for federal purposes. Membership in an association and accreditation are not synonymous unless and until a member school has gone through the accrediting process.

Two questions must be asked with respect to the accreditation of an independent business school: By whom is the school accredited; and for what is it accredited? The accreditation of an institution is as strong as the agency that does the accrediting.

In the independent business school sector of American postsecondary education, a beginning of accreditation was made in 1912 with the organization of the Association of Accredited Commercial Schools, known as NAACS. In 1947, Business Education Research Associates employed Professor F. G. Nichols, one of the foremost business educators in the country, as its research director. He made accreditation of independent business schools his prime concern and recommended the appointment of an accreditation authority of 12 members to perform the function of accrediting independent business schools which applied. The cooperation of the National Office Management Association (NOMA) was obtained, and NOMA agreed with BERA to become a cosponsor of the project, with the result that the National Accreditation Authority for Private Business Schools (NAAPBS) was born. A total of 32 independent business schools were accredited by this Authority.

About the same time that NAAPBS was formed, another accrediting agency—the National Association and Council of Business Schools (NACBS) was formed and organized its own accrediting commission. The sponsors of the NAAPBS agreed to dissolve and merge its accrediting activities with the newly organized Accrediting Commission for Business Schools.

During this time, representatives of several organizations interested in independent business school accreditation had been in touch with the U.S. Office of Education with a view to having their particular agency approved as the "nationally recognized accrediting agency" for independent business schools. The USOE advised business school representatives to "put their house in order" and come to them with a united front on the question of accreditation. This firm stand by the USOE was responsible in large measure for the formation of the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools of the NACBS in 1952. After four years of extensive negotiations with the committee on accreditation of the USOE, the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools was approved as a nationally recognized accrediting agency.

The Bulletin on Accredited Higher Institutions, published by the U.S. Office of Education in 1960 stated:

> Since the publication of the 1956 edition of accredited higher institutions, the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools has been added to the list of nationally recognized professional accrediting agencies having responsibility for accrediting higher education.

The initial list of accredited independent business schools has risen from 115 in 1953–54 to over 500 in 1976–77, attesting to the growth in stature and prestige which the Accrediting Commission enjoys. Since 1972 the United Business Schools Association has been renamed the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools, with the Accrediting Commission functioning thereunder. (The Association of Independent Colleges and Schools had been referred to earlier in this chapter.)

Generally the Accrediting Commission requires reinspection and reevaluation of member institutions on a six-year cycle. Some schools are accredited for one or two years and given specific instructions relative to information that must be furnished if accreditation is to be continued.

Each school making application for accreditation or reaccreditation is visited by a team consisting of from two to four members who spend from one to three days evaluating the school, depending upon its classification. The Accrediting Commission, while a part of the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools, has complete autonomy in its accrediting function.

UNIQUE RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE INDEPENDENT BUSINESS SCHOOLS

The independent business school is unique in the American educational scene, and unlike some of the other sectors of postsecondary education, it has the responsibility to help every student successfully complete a program so that he or she can enter the job market at a level at which he/she is capable of performing successfully.

The profit motive produces a strong incentive among many of these independent business schools to meet the needs of their students. These schools have the unique responsibility of responding to changes in the labor market and changes in industrial requirements. They have the responsibility for making rapid adjustments to changing technology and varying needs of the business community they serve. They must provide training on specialized equipment not found in most public secondary schools.

The independent business schools are often responsible for offering programs for retraining and upgrading office workers in the area in which the institutions are located. Not only do these schools have the obligation of providing instruction during normal daytime hours, but instruction in the evenings and on weekends must be provided as well to meet the needs of the public they serve. So that students may progress at flexible rates, the independent business schools are responsible for structuring their curriculums accordingly. The responsibility of these independent business schools may mean that they must make use of individualized instruction and independent study on an expanded basis and must make extensive use of multisensory teaching aids.

Finally, the independent business schools have the unique responsibility for placing a larger percentage of their graduates than do most other postsecondary institutions. While it is illegal to "guarantee a job," most schools spare no effort or expense in seeking gainful employment for graduates at no cost to them. Since independent business schools frequently obtain special instructors for courses offered, especially those of a highly technical nature, this might also be listed as a unique responsibility.

THE FUTURE OF THE INDEPENDENT BUSINESS SCHOOL

The independent business school has survived all kinds of economic conditions and all kinds of praise and criticism. For many years it was the only educational institution preparing young people for business careers. In recent years, despite the influence of collegiate and junior collegiate training, the independent business school has been encroached upon but never absorbed by other educational agencies.

The independent business school has served and still serves a function that is not fulfilled in quite the same way by any other educational institution. As long as it serves that function, and serves it well, its future is secure.